THE

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

OF

LANGUAGE;

OR, THE

PHILOSOPHY OF GRAMMAR.

BY

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PREFACE.

THE study of Grammar has been so constantly pursued in a manner almost purely mechanical, that both teachers and pupils seem to have generally forgotten that any theory or philosophical basis can exist on which its great general principles are founded. It is true that the usage of each particular language will always guide and govern the practice of that language; but besides this, the facts that words represent ideas, and that the connexions between ideas in the mind must be indicated by corresponding connexions in the words, afford a common basis for the great general rules which are identical in all languages.

The following treatise is an attempt to explain and illustrate these general principles—to show how they originate in the operations of the mind, and to what extent they are necessarily identical in all languages. It is not intended to introduce these considerations to the exclusion of the practical rules which operate in immediate connexion with the usage of any language, but rather to explain, so far as possible, the origin of these rules, and thereby afford a more accurate and precise means of examining the analysis of sentences, the nature of words, and their syntactical arrangement.

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It was the original intention of the author to limit the following sketch strictly to the mere philosophy of Grammar, chiefly for the use of teachers and advanced students. Various considerations, however, have induced him to introduce into the work as much as possible of the practical application of the principles of general Grammar to the usages of the English language, and more especially to add, in the shape of an Appendix, a short introduction to the practical rules as commonly taught in schools.

The teacher is recommended in teaching beginners (at least young children) to commence with the Appendix, giving such explanation of the reasons of the different rules as the pupils are capable of receiving. He will find it convenient also to limit himself at first to the three principal parts of speech—the noun, verb, and adjective,—to combine these in easy propositions, with simple explanations of each part, and then to practise them in finding out the several parts.

A great variety of examples of analysis has been introduced, with a view to illustrate as many as possible of the different forms in which words are arranged in sentences, and to exhibit in the strongest light the very general nature of the great principles which constitute the philosophy of Grammar.

It was the writer's intention also to add two chapters, one explaining the numerous peculiar and idiomatic forms of speech in common use, and the other exhibiting and correcting the various incorrect and imperfect or ambiguous modes of expressing the thoughts so commonly heard, but the apprehension of rendering the work too costly for the convenience of the great mass of schools and teachers, rendered the omission of these chapters unavoidable.

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

In announcing a second edition of the "Philosophy of Grammar," the author gladly takes the opportunity of returning thanks for the rapid circulation of the first; and with the view of making the work more worthy of the notice of teachers and students, he has taken great pains to correct errors, and has also introduced in the Appendix some additional matter explanatory of common incorrect modes of expression and peculiar phrases.

He again deems it necessary to remind his readers that his principal object was to add to the treatises at present in use, a sketch of the Philosophy of Grammar, including at the same time in an Appendix as much of the rudiments as will enable the work to be used as a text-book for children of all ages.

It must however be distinctly understood, that a mere "hearer of lessons" will find himself at a loss in the use of, at least, a large portion of the work. The teacher should be capable of giving all the explanations obviously required by the text; in short in this and many other subjects, "conversational teaching," at least with children, is the most effective method; indeed for a considerable time a text-book should be dispensed with, and when

placed in the children's hands, almost every line of it will require illustration and explanation. For this reason the author has carefully avoided questions at the bottom of each page, because they are apt to lead to mechanical teaching; any one who can read, can ask them; and after the old system, can "pandy" or "cowhide," every child who does not answer in the words of the book. All teachers who are entirely dependent on such questions and practise such a system should abandon the profession, and the sooner the better. In short no text-book will supply a deficiency in mental ability, a mind trained and taught by experience, and a spirit heartily engaged in the work.

PRINCIPLES OF LANGUAGE.

CHAPTER I.

LANGUAGE IN THE LOWER ANIMALS—LANGUAGE A RESULT OF THE POSSESSION OF INTELLECT, AND MUST FOLLOW ITS OPERATIONS—OPERATIONS OF THE MIND—THEIR EFFECT ON THE LANGUAGE OF DIFFERENT RACES—CONNEXIONS BETWEEN IDEAS INDICATED BY CORRESPONDING CONNEXIONS BETWEEN WORDS.

(1.) The intellect of man comprehends a variety of powers and faculties which are exhibited by the lower animals also in various limited degrees. These powers are perpetually exercised on the objects that surround them, and hence, as most creatures live in society, they may naturally be supposed to possess some means of imparting their feelings or thoughts to each other.—(In the use of the words "ideas," "thoughts," "notions," and others of a similar character, I shall be guided by their commonly received acceptation, without venturing to deal with the precise definitions adopted in mental philosophy; thus I shall speak of an idea as the mental impression received from external objects through the medium of our senses, and so on of the others.)

But how are these thoughts or ideas to be made known to his fellows by any creature possessed of intellect? Evidently by some sort of signs capable of being understood by the others, and we find traces of such signs observable in most, even of the inferior animals, with which we are acquainted; so arguing by analogy, we may fairly assume that no creature possessed of life, however low in the scale of creation, is altogether destitute of such a power. Consider language in its widest acceptation, apart from the

elements of articulate sounds, this power of communicating sensations, so universally distributed, may be denominated language, whether it consists of discordant sounds or cries, motions or distortions of the body, changes of aspect, or actual words. This is sufficiently obvious in the superior orders of the lower animals, the various domestic creatures, which we train up to minister to our luxuries or our necessities,—nay, our superior intellect has enabled us to attach a distinct meaning to the various cries and gestures of the dog, the horse, or the elephant, and occasionally to distinguish the peculiar intonations of individuals, and even to form an estimate of the temperament and disposition by peculiarities of aspect and changes of countenance.

(2.) Thus to some extent we have become acquainted with the language of the lower animals, and can trace a direct connexion between the sentiment or sensation to be indicated, and the signs used for that purpose. We have learned that these signs vary under various circumstances, and that, no matter how limited be the intellect of the creature under observation, the signs it makes use of will vary with its sensations, and will therefore necessarily follow such order, and have such connexion with each other as exists in the mind (if I may use the term) of the creature using them.

(3.) Thus language (using the term in its most extended signification) may be said to be common to all creatures possessing any degree of intellect, and to be a sort of necessary result of such intellect; it must change with the changes, and depend on the operations of such intellect.

(4.) These signs of sensations which constitute language in its widest sense will thus, for the same reason, be few and simple where there is least intellect, and increase in complexity and variety accordingly as the intellectual operations possess greater scope and power. Whatever may be the discrepancy existing between the intellects of the various orders of the lower animals, the human intellect is so immeasurably superior, that the language of man must necessarily be in an equal degree superior in expression, copiousness and variety.

(5.) It is not necessary to my purpose to enter on the disputed question touching the difference between the intellect of the brute and that of the man, it is sufficient to impress on my readers the general fact alluded to above, that in both cases the expression of sensations and of ideas must be guided by the mental circumstances connected with such ideas.

(6.) Perhaps the simplest operation of the mind with which we have to do in considering the nature of language, is "simple apprehension," or that process, by which, what we call an idea is produced or called up in the mind, usually through the instrumentality of the senses.

(7.) The next intellectual process, and one of a more complicated character, is the comparison of two ideas, by means of which we form an opinion or "judgment of the mind." This is called "Judgment;" and the usual means whereby we make these mental operations known to others, is "Language."

(8.) Of course there are various other operations of the mind of which we make frequent use; and among these is the comparison of two judgments, whence we deduce a third. This is called "Reasoning;" and the examination into its use and nature constitutes the science of Logic: but these and other mental operations are communicated by means of the signs made use of for representing the results of simple apprehension and judgment; that is, by signs of mere ideas or of combinations of ideas forming opinions.

(9.) The human intellect varies materially in its powers, both in different nations and in different individuals of the same nation; but these are differences of degree, not of kind: and though certain faculties may be exceedingly weak, or possibly altogether wanting in some, yet the operations of the mind, so far as they take place, are identical in all. Thus, to form an opinion we entertain the idea of some thing (no matter what its nature) and attach to it, or compare with it, the idea of some quality; and as these two ideas agree or disagree, we form an affirmative or negative opinion. For example, we think of the sub-

ject "man," and we compare with it the idea of the quality expressed by the word "mortality." By means of such comparison we form the opinion, which would be expressed in the English language by the phrase, "Man is mortal;" and some such process is carried on in the mind of every one when forming an opinion, no matter what his race or condition.

(10.) The immense difference that exists in mental power between the highly educated civilized man, and the lowest in the scale, as for instance the brown man of Sumatra, is no argument against the above statement. The latter race will have infinitely fewer and less complex ideas, and will be immeasurably inferior in the faculty of abstraction, the power that probably distinguishes the human intellect from that of the lower animals; but the mental operations, so far as they are performed at all, will be performed in the same way in both races, and hence the language of both will, to the same extent, partake of the same characteristics. Thus the dialects of the savage will have infinitely fewer words, because the ideas he requires to communicate are infinitely fewer. He will have few or no common terms; because his mind is deficient in the faculty of abstraction, by means of which we are enabled to frame common terms. He will have names, for instance, for particular kinds of motion or colour, but no words equivalent to the general appellation indicative of the whole class. Very possibly his dialect may consist only of the names of the objects around him, of their qualities, and what he does with them; but it will nevertheless equally represent mental operations, identical in their nature with those which take place in the mind of the most enlightened individual.

(11.) In short, as there are different ideas and different kinds of ideas in the minds of all to be represented by language, so the signs or words used for such purposes in any language must be different and of different kinds; and, as the ideas have various connexion and relations in the minds of all, so the signs or words representing them must by some means or other indicate such relations with

clearness and precision. Thus, if I am led to form the opinion regarding two men, that one is beating the other, indicated by the words "William beats John"; in order to express that opinion accurately, the word "William" must bear the same relation to "beats" as the idea which it represents bears to the idea represented by the word "beats" and so of the other word, "John," whose relation to "beats" must be different from that of "William" to "beats," because the relation of the idea for which it stands is different. All this is the case, no matter in what language we express ourselves; and consequently the grammatical conditions adopted to express such relations must be identical in all languages, no matter how the mode of indicating these conditions may vary by the usage of particular dialects: as in the example above, what is called in English a verb, must have before it, in any language, what we call a subject; and if it represents a particular kind of action, it must have after it what we call an object. I here use the words "before" and "after," not according to the position of the words as uttered, but according to the sequence of the ideas.

CHAPTER II.

LANGUAGE, WORDS—GENERAL PRINCIPLES COMMON TO ALL LANGUAGES—BASED ON IDENTITY OF MENTAL OPERATIONS—ORIGIN OF CLASSES OF WORDS—LETTERS—THE PHILOSOPHY OF GRAMMAR.

(12.) Language is "the means by which we communicate our ideas to each other," and consists of words, which are articulate sounds which represent ideas.

Those words combined together represent corresponding combinations of ideas; such combinations of words, that is, "judgments of the mind expressed in words," are the means we make use of to make known our sentiments on all subjects. Different languages make use of different words to express the same idea, and arrange them in dif-

ferent modes, when in combination, to express the same sentiment. Of the origin of words in any dialect I am not about to treat, nor of the particular methods adopted by different dialects to indicate the relations of words to each other when used to convey a sentiment. These arrangements will depend on the arbitrary usage of each language, and cannot be accounted for on any precise theory; and the details of the special arrangements of any language, will constitute a considerable portion of the grammar of that language. The great principles, however, which are more or less indicated by those special arrangements, are identical in all languages; because, as already stated, the operations of the mind to be represented by such languages, are similarly identical. These general principles common to all languages, are chiefly as follows:—

(13.) All minds admit and communicate ideas; therefore, there are separate representatives thereof, namely, words. This is true, whether, as in some languages, several ideas are combined in one word, or, as in others, many ideas exist for which there is no single sign or word. Thus different languages differ very materially in the number of words composing them, such number depending materially on the condition of those who speak each, as regards enlightenment of intellect, and civilization. The wants of life are immeasurably increased in the civilized man; new arts and sciences introduced, and consequently a vast number of new words required to represent the host of additional ideas thereby admitted.

(14.) Ideas connected together in the exercise of thought, must be imitated therein by the words that represent them; and these connexions of the words must be clearly indicated in the language, or such language will express the sense either imperfectly, or not at all. The mode of indicating such connexions may vary in different dialects; but the connexions or relations intended to express the same sense, will be always the same, without reference to the language made use of.

Opinions or sentiments formed in the mind may be

grouped together in a variety of ways in order to form a fuller or more prolonged expression of opinion, and these connexions also must be carefully exhibited in the corresponding groups of words.

(15.) Ideas are of different kinds; hence the words used to express them must be also of different kinds, and thus some languages may have not only fewer words than others, but also fewer classes or kinds of words; and the most perfect languages are thus found to contain about the same number of classes of words; nor is it likely that any dialect will hereafter exist containing a greater variety of classes of words than is now to be found in the languages of the most civilized nations.

(16.) Different ideas will assume in the mind connexions of different kinds with other ideas, or will be themselves modified by relations based directly on their respective significations. Thus an idea of action, if combined with others in the formation of an opinion, must have connected with it various others, such as the idea of the thing to which the action is applied, as doing or enduring, and consequently the corresponding sign, which we call in English, a verb, must have a subject before it; and, as the same idea expresses action, it may have connected with it the various modifications of time, place, manner, instrument, &c., all of which must be expressed in language without reference to the particular dialect spoken.

(17.) Again, the idea of what we call a thing (giving the term its most general acceptation) must, from its very nature, be capable of having ideas of quality attached to it; and consequently words representing these two classes, must have a corresponding connexion in the grammars of all languages.

Ideas of things hold various relations to the other ideas with which they are connected, and these relations are so important that an alteration in them will usually materially alter the meaning in which they occur. These relations between such ideas, called in grammar, Case, must be clearly represented in language, or the true meaning will not be clearly conveyed.

(18.) The ideas of things, and therefore the words standing for such ideas, must be subject to those modifications which affect the things themselves; and thus the properties of number, gender, and some others, are found attached to the names of things in all languages.

(19.) Ideas of quality are from their nature necessarily susceptible of being modified by considerations regarding the degree in which the quality is possessed, or its direction; and the corresponding words are therefore capable of being similarly modified in all languages.

(20.) There may be connexions between various ideas in the mind, of a nature to be more conveniently expressed by separate words; and such words are therefore to be found in many languages, though from their very nature they may be supposed not to express ideas, but merely the relations existing between ideas.

(21.) These sounds of which these various classes of words are composed, are necessarily those which the human organs of speech can produce; but these organs are capable of so varied an expression of sound with such minute changes of intonation, that it is scarcely possible to place a limit to them, and there are undoubtedly sounds in various barbarous dialects incapable of being represented by any combinations of letters with which we are acquainted. The characters used to represent these sounds are arbitrary in their application and frequently insufficient and imperfect, but the sounds themselves may be considered with reference to principles dependent on the different organs by which they are uttered; consequently all alphabets may be expected to contain labial, dental, guttural letters, &c.

(22.) Thus in all languages, there must be different words, different kinds of words and combinations of words to express sentiments; these groups of words must have certain parts, all of which must have certain relations with each other, and they must be capable of being linked together in a variety of ways; individual words must have connexions with each other, and the different classes of words must have certain modifications of grammatical pro-

perties more or less perfectly indicated. These principles are common to all languages in proportion to their several degrees of perfection; because words represent ideas, and their combinations represent sentiments or opinions: and as the operations of the human mind are carried on in the same way, in the reception of ideas and the formation of opinions without reference to race or language, so the connexions and relations of the words that represent these operations must be, to a great extent, identical in all languages.

(23.) These principles are therefore the great general laws on which the most important rules of grammar in all languages are based; and while the precise mode of indicating these connexions and relations in any particular language, constitutes the special rules of its grammar, an examination into the origin of these great principles, their connexion with the operations of the mind, and their effects on the different classes of words, considered separately or in combination, may be designated "General Grammar," or the "Philosophy of Grammar."

CHAPTER III.

THE NATURE OF EACH OF THE DIFFERENT CLASSES OF WORDS—THEIR ORIGIN—SOME CLASSES WANTING IN BARBAROUS DIALECTS—NOUNS, VERBS, AND ADJECTIVES ESSENTIAL—DEFINITIONS.

(24.) We next come to the consideration of the different classes of words and the nature of each.

Vast numbers of ideas pass through the mind; consequently there must be a considerable number of words to represent them. Occasionally words are used in several meanings, that is, represent several ideas, and frequently the same idea has more than one representative, though in this case it will be found that the several words so used represent the idea with slight shades of variety in their application. I include herein all words of whatever sort,

whether they indicate ideas, or merely the relations or connexions existing between ideas, such as conjunctions and prepositions. This latter consideration affords a basis for the division of words into two great classes, namely, Notional and Relational, or those which represent ideas of any sort, and those which indicate merely relations. To the latter belong prepositions and conjunctions; and to the former the remaining parts of speech,—the noun and pronoun *directly*, because they are the representatives of the ideas of actual things; and the adjective, adverb, and verb indirectly, because they include the ideas of action or modifications of action, quality or degrees of quality. This division, however, is comparatively useless, and is denied by many on the ground that prepositions and conjunctions represent ideas of the relations and connexions existing between other ideas or combinations of ideas.

(25.) The real division of words into classes adopted in all languages which possess a written grammar, and necessarily existing whether adopted or not, must be based on the corresponding distinctions that exist between the various kinds of ideas entertained in the mind.

(26.) Using the word "idea" in its popular sense, (and without considering the mode in which they are produced in the mind,) we find that we have ideas of Things, of Qualities or degrees of quality, of Action, of Emotions, Feelings, or Sensations suddenly produced, and of the Relations or connexions existing between other ideas or groups of ideas. Thus to represent ideas of things, we have the corresponding class of words called in English *nouns* (in which *pronouns* are included); for ideas of qualities and degrees of quality, we have *adjectives* (the *articles* included), and *adverbs* (including words indicative of the various relations under which the mind may consider an action); for ideas of action, we have *verbs;* as expressive of sudden emotions or sensations, we have *interjections;* and to express the connexions and relations existing in the mind between ideas or combinations of ideas, we have *prepositions* and *conjunctions.*

(27.) It may be questioned whether any other classes of

ideas save those named above, are ever entertained; hence the above kinds of words may be considered sufficient, and hence the necessity of "Parts of speech," or different kinds of words, in all languages.

(28.) It is probable that some barbarous tribes, either from natural deficiency or from utter barbarism, may be without some of these kinds of ideas, and their dialects will be defective accordingly; in other instances, though the ideas may be found, the dialect may be so rude and imperfect as to possess no means of expressing them. In these cases various of the parts of speech may be wanting; though it is probable that no dialects are altogether so defective as to be without names of individuals, things observable by the senses, especially the sight; names of qualities possessed by such things; and words expressive of what is done with them. These are Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs. They are necessary to express an opinion, to make an assertion. The use of mere unconnected single words expressive of ideas is among the first efforts of language, at least after the cries or other vocal sounds (if they can be called words) which make known sudden emotions of pleasure, pain, &c. But the mere utterance of such detached words can never independently express an assertion, for which the noun, verb, and adjective are necessary, though the last is often included in the verb. *This making of assertions* or *expressing of opinions* is the great end of language, and, as will be more fully shown hereafter, can not be effected without the use of the noun, verb, and adjective, or some signs representing them. Though the words "yes" and "nay" indicate an opinion, they do so only in right of their connexion with some previous statement or question. When the Indian says, "This good," we understand *inferentially*, that he means to assert the quality, "goodness," of the subject, "this"; and in the same way, from a sudden exclamation of astonishment, we *infer* that the party using it is astonished, but evidently neither has actually *made the assertion*.

(29.) By means of these three classes of words, therefore, opinions can be expressed, assertions made, and, by

consequence, questions asked. The other classes of words, however convenient, are not actually essential to the expression of an opinion: but from the nature of the mental operation by which an opinion is formed, there must, in order to communicate it accurately, be a word to represent the thing whereof the opinion is about to be formed; another to represent the quality to be attached to, or compared with it; and a third word to express the act of comparing. The pronoun is only a convenience to avoid repetition the article is an adjective; the different relations expressed by prepositions, may be, and very often are, expressed by altering the terminations of the words between which the relations exist; some similar expedient might be adopted instead of the conjunction; and the adverb may be expressed by means of the adjective and noun.

(30.) Before proceeding to show how the connexion between words and the ideas they stand for, affects each of the different kinds of words, as regards the philosophy of grammar, it may be necessary to make a few general remarks on the nature of definitions, those at least which are applied to the different classes of words in grammar.

The value of a definition depends upon its describing precisely the objects under consideration, in such terms that no other can be included under it, and that none which it should include shall be omitted. If I define man to be "a rational animal," my definition is imperfect, because the epithet "rational" may be applied to other creatures besides man, and consequently they also will be included under the definition; therefore, besides the term animal, I must use some epithet indicating a quality possessed by no other creature but man. Allow, for instance, that he is the only creature possessed of the faculty of abstraction, and then a correct definition of man will be "an animal possessing the faculty of abstraction." This evidently consists of two parts, namely, the name of the class to which the thing defined belongs, and the name of the quality by which it is distinguished from all others of that class. This rule should be carefully borne in mind in considering the nature of the different classes of words in any

language; and though their very nature may be such as to render it difficult to prevent some of one class from partially possessing the essential quality which distinguishes another, it will enable us to decide, with far greater precision and certainty, the classes to which different words should be respectively referred.

(31.) It should further be borne in mind, that all classes of words are defined with reference to their meaning, and more especially to the part they act, or the duty they perform, when combined with others. Adverbs very commonly end in English in "ly" and in Latin in "ter" or "e," but we do not find them defined according to that fact, but always in accordance with the fact of their performing a certain duty, that is, being attached to certain other words for a special purpose. Hence, in determining the nature of any word in any language, we must refer it to that class whose essential or distinctive quality it possesses. In dwelling on this point, therefore, I shall not usually take into account the origin or former meaning of any word, but judge of it by its application in the connexion before me; being well aware that there are few words that have not changed their meaning and application at different periods, and very many that are used in several meanings at the present time.

CHAPTER IV.

THE VERB—ITS DISTINCTIVE QUALITY—ITS GRAMMATICAL PROPERTIES—MEANS OF EXPRESSING ITS RELATIONS AND CONNEXIONS.

(32.) In whatever language we are about to express ourselves, the first species of words that becomes familiar to us is probably the class which consists of the names of things, because through the organs of sight we become acquainted most readily with the number, nature, and variety of the objects around us; and as this sense of seeing is in perpetual activity in storing our minds with ideas, so the

signs or words representing such ideas are those with which we first become familiar in the attempt to acquire any language; just as we see a person, among those of whose language he is ignorant, picking up from them in the first instance the names of the things he sees around him. Though this renders the noun in any language one of the most important classes of words, yet as the great end of language is to communicate our thoughts and opinions to others, that is, to make assertions, the class of words, by which alone we can make an assertion, namely the verb, must necessarily be considered the "principal word in language," without reference to any particular dialect. There is no class of words whose definition is more disputed than that of the verb; without therefore attempting to enter into such disputes, or presuming to settle them authoritatively, I shall proceed to consider the verb with reference to the idea for which it stands in language.

(33.) In common parlance, the idea of action is represented by the verb. If this were taken unlimitedly, any word in any way representing the idea of action would be a verb; but this is not so, as there are numerous verbal words, partially representing the idea of action, (such, for instance, as the participles), which are not verbs. We must therefore state more precisely what is meant by the idea of action alluded to. In the process of forming an opinion, as already stated (7), the mind, as it were, compares the idea of some quality with the idea of some subject. By this act of comparison, the mind is enabled to judge that the former may be attached to the latter, or that it may not. These judgments being represented in words, become assertions; and the word that conveys this assertion undoubtedly becomes the representative of the act of comparing the ideas, and is so far a representative of an idea of action. This mode of considering the matter includes the verb "to be," which probably has a separate sign in every dialect. When I say "Man is mortal," I use a combination of words indicating that my mind has compared the quality represented by the word "mortal," with

that represented by the word "man," and has formed such a judgment regarding the nature and connexion of the two as will enable me to make the assertion in question, wherein the representative of that mental comparison, that is, the word making the assertion, is evidently the word "is." By no other species of word but the verb can such act of comparison be represented, or such assertion made; hence this property of the verb is undoubtedly that by which it is distinguished from every other kind of word, and affords, as I conceive, the best means of defining a verb in any language, namely, "A word that makes an assertion."

(34.) It is evident, that the mind, in comparing the idea of some quality with that of some subject, may be unable to form a decisive judgment, and may therefore question the fact of the agreement or disagreement of the two ideas. This circumstance of "questioning" the affirmative or negative connexion of the two ideas, is also represented by the verb, and may be considered to be included in the definition, or, if deemed necessary, may be added to it,—"A verb is a word which makes an assertion or asks a question." No other word will directly perform either of these operations, and hence no word of any other class can be included under it, and the great point of logical accuracy is sufficiently attained. I may here allude to the supposition that this power of asserting might possibly be represented by some peculiar alteration of shape, or some inflexion, in some other word, the subject for instance, but this would merely be making one word represent two different kinds of ideas, which certainly would not add to the perspicuity of the dialect.

(35.) The grammatical properties assigned to the verb must be to some extent the same in all languages, because they are dependent on the nature of the idea which the verb represents. One of the most important of these is "Kind," according to which verbs are divided into various species. It is obvious that a number of individuals belonging to any one class, may be grouped in a variety of ways, according to the basis of division adopted; thus the

houses in a city may be grouped, according to their uses, into residences, stores, churches, &c.; or according to their materials, as wooden, stone, brick, &c., and so on, selecting different qualities as the basis of division. So with verbs. If the nature of the action considered in the mind be assumed as the basis of division, inasmuch as the mind must contemplate that action as passing on to an object or not passing on, so the words representing such idea of action must necessarily have a corresponding division into two kinds, indicated in English by the words *transitive* and *intransitive*. This distinction must exist in all languages, in consequence of the nature of the idea of action entertained by the mind.

(36.) Again, admitting that all verbs express action, before that idea of action there must be another idea of something either "doing" or "enduring" the action. This, when expressed in words, is called in English the "subject;" and assuming this circumstance as a basis of division, we necessarily have two other classes of verbs, called in English "Active verbs," when the subject is *doing* the action, and "Passive verbs" when the subject is *enduring* the action.

(37.) Many grammarians assert that there are verbs which do not express action, and consequently they can be neither transitive nor intransitive; their subjects can be neither *doing* nor *enduring*. Such verbs they designate *neither* verbs, using however the Latin word *neuter*, instead of "neither." If it be admitted, therefore, that there are any verbs not expressing action, then there will be another class, called "Neuter verbs." However this may be asserted of the verb "to be," it is absurd to apply it to other verbs, as is frequently done, such as, "to sleep," "to sit," "to stand"; and considering the idea of action as I have viewed it, even the verb "to be" ceases to be neuter, and should be included among the intransitive verbs.

(38.) Before proceeding farther, it is necessary to remark generally of all classes of words expressive of ideas capable of being considered by the mind under various mo-

difications, or in various relations with other words, that, as the idea is viewed under this or that modification, so the word representing that idea may be expected to possess some means of varying its form slightly to express the particular modification or relation, in connexion with which the mind may be contemplating the idea when the word is used. This is the case in many languages, such as the ancient Saxon, the classical dialects of Greece and Rome, and to a small extent in the modern languages of Europe, where an altered termination expressed partially the modifications of time, manner, &c. This appears to be the most philosophical method of indicating these modifications, because, as the idea is essentially the same, it would seem that the word representing it should alone continue to do so, though with some slight corresponding change of form; other methods, however, are adopted in various languages to express modifications and relations. The principal of those methods are "position," and "additional words"; as, when I say, "The man gave the book to me," the different relations of "man" and "book" to "gave," are indicated by position; while that of "me" to "gave" is indicated by an additional word. In other languages these circumstances might be expressed by varying the terminations of the words.

(39.) These considerations are of course general, and apply with peculiar force to the different species of verbs. All verbs must express either transitive or intransitive action; but as no one idea of action ever varies so as to be at one time transitive, at another, the contrary, so no verb expressing the one species of action ever requires any change of shape to express the other, consequently the shape or form of the verb does not indicate to which of these kinds it belongs. If neuter verbs be acknowledged, the same observation will apply to them; no change of shape in the verb is requisite to announce the fact that it is transitive, intransitive, or neuter.

(40.) This is not the case with the distinction of "Active" and "Passive" (called in English, "Voice"); because an individual idea of action may be considered in

the mind with reference to the fact of the subject "doing" it, or of the subject "enduring" it; hence the verb indicating that idea should be susceptible of change of form to indicate the modification in question; in other words, there should be two forms of the verb for voice, the one for the active, the other for the passive, as in the Latin "amo," "I love," (subject doing); "amor," "I am loved," (subject enduring). When any dialect (as the English, for instance) does not possess a second form for voice, it is driven to adopt one of the expedients mentioned above. Thus in the example just quoted, "am loved," if written and considered as one word, is a real passive voice; but as such is not the case, there may be said to be no passive voice in English. No matter, however, whether the dialect has, or has not the means of expressing, either by an additional word or by alteration of form, such modification of the idea, it may have a real existence in the minds of all persons, and its expression should be provided for in some way or other in all languages,—that is, there should be a form for the passive voice.

(41.) There is yet another division based on the nature of verbs which may require some explanation, though it must not of necessity exist in all languages.

Any one who compares carefully the process carried on in his mind in the formation of an opinion with the words used in expressing it, will readily observe that he frequently expresses by a single word both the idea of the act of comparison and the idea of the quality compared. Thus when we use the words "The bird flies," the word "flies" evidently represents both these ideas, namely, the quality of flying and the act of comparison or the idea of connexion between it and "bird." This office is, in short, performed in English by all verbs except the verb "to be," and such is probably the case in all dialects; hence such verbs are frequently denominated "verbs adjective," and the verb "to be," in opposition thereto, the "verb substantive." The special duty of the latter therefore is merely to indicate the act of comparison in the mind, as when I say "Man is mortal," the intention of my words

is not so much to assert that "man exists," as to connect the quality expressed by "mortal," with the subject "man;" but where the verb "to be" is used to denote existence as in the sentence "There is nobody in the room," it is a verb adjective, because it then includes the idea of the quality "existing."

(42.) All ideas of action may be connected in the mind with various modifications, the principal of which are "time" and "manner;" hence the verb in every dialect may be expected to possess within itself some means of indicating them. As regards the former, three times must be alluded to, namely, "present," "past," and "future," for which we naturally expect separate forms in the verb; but besides these great divisions of time, the combinations of our ideas require in the more perfect dialects means of expressing various shades of the divisions of time, which is effected in many languages legitimately by alterations in the form of the verb called (in English) "tenses," as is observable in the Latin, Greek, modern French, &c.; while in English but two forms for tense are found, the other divisions of time being represented by the old expedient of using additional words. While tense, to some extent at least, is known to exist in most if not in all dialects, because it depends on the nature of the idea, it is evident that the number of the minor divisions of time may vary in different languages, according to the usage (arbitrary authority) of each. For example, in English (including the compound tenses and using the common appellations) we have Present, Imperfect, Perfect, Pluperfect and Future; and in Greek, Present, Imperfect, two Futures, two Aorists, two Perfects and Pluperfects, and a Paulo-post-future, all representing minor shades of the three grand divisions of time.

(43.) The same observations apply to "manner," designated in English, "Mood;" and of right universal, even in dialects (if any) where the grammatical property called "mood" is unknown. This universality should exist, because every one may consider the idea of action with various modifications of manner, and consequently

there *should* be in all dialects some means within the verb of expressing such modifications, as in the Latin, where we say "amo," "I love," "amem," "I may love," "ama," "love thou." Though in English we can express the idea of action "generally" (Indicative) and, by means of additional words, the modifications of contingency, (Subjunctive), power or possibility (Potential), command (Imperative), still the form of the verb itself scarcely undergoes any change for this purpose, except in the very irregular verb "to be," and in the third singular of a Subjunctive tense which assumes the form of the Indicative plural. In different dialects there will be of course different moods, expressed in the more perfect languages by changes of form and corresponding nearly with those mentioned above. The so called Infinitive, indicated in English by the sign "to," is usually a noun, and is so considered by the best writers. (See Whately's Logic). In fact, it is the name of the action, and received the name Infinitive from the unlimited manner in which it indicated the action. Thus, "It is useful to study," means "To study is useful," the pronoun "it" evidently standing for "to study," and being introduced merely for convenience. Again in the sentence, "I am able," the sense of the words can only be completed by introducing the name of the thing for which I am "able;" because I cannot entertain the idea represented by "able;" without also having suggested to me some idea of the thing to which my ability is directed; so that when I express the full sense, I must introduce the name of this thing, and I say, "able to go," "to write," &c. In such sentences "to go," taken as one word, is a noun, the name of an action; or if "go" be considered separately, it is equally a noun, governed by the prepositional sign "to." In Greek the Infinitive mood is constantly used as a noun, pointed out by an article and governed by a preposition. This is found to some extent also in French.

(44.) Those words denominated Participles are not verbs, but either adjectives or nouns, as will be shown hereafter.

(45.) The grammatical properties denominated in English, Number and Person, do not, philosophically speaking, belong to verbs, inasmuch as verbs, not being names of things, cannot designate either one thing or more than one; and for the same reason they cannot be the names either of the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person spoken of. The application of these properties to the verb is merely a grammatical expedient made use of for convenience' sake. The nature of this expedient is as follows: the idea of action has always in the mind a certain relation with another idea going before it in sense; this latter, when both are expressed in words, is called, as I have already stated, the "subject"; this subject is very often a pronoun, the name of some familiar thing spoken of a little before. When this is the case, it saves trouble and avoids repetition not to name the subject again, but to indicate its person and number by changing the termination of the verb; and thus, whether the subject is expressed or not, the termination of the verb varies, and it is said to agree in number and person with its subject. In Latin, for instance, instead of saying "Ego amo," "I love," "Tu amas," "Thou lovest," &c., we omit the pronouns "Ego" and "Tu," being made aware by the terminations "o" and "as," that the one means "I love," and the other, "Thou lovest." This is done only to a small extent in English, only the second and third singular having special terminations; and even these might well be omitted, as the pronouns that mark the persons are not usually left out.

(46.) I have not alluded here to the division of verbs into "Regular" and "Irregular," because it has no connexion with the philosophy of grammar, originating in the fact that in some dialects certain terminations were set apart to mark particular modifications of the verb, and all verbs whose forms agreed therewith were called "regular," the rest irregular.

CHAPTER V.

THE NOUN—GRAMMATICAL PROPERTIES—KIND—NUMBER AND PERSON—GENDER—CASE.

(47.) Next to the verb in importance, and perhaps first in common use and familiarity, is the noun. The existence of a dialect not possessed of the names of things is inconceivable; and by considering the nature of the ideas represented by the class of words called in English "Nouns," we arrive at a correct notion of the grammatical properties that may be attributed to them in any dialect whatever. Some nouns may be names of things possessing a bodily material existence, such as "horse," "table," "house;" others again may represent the idea of things possessing no bodily existence, such as "justice," "purity," &c., including the names of actions as "to go," "to write." These are called "abstract nouns," and this is one method of dividing nouns as regards kind.

Another and much more important division is based upon a different circumstance. When an idea of a thing is produced in the mind, it may have reference to some particular object apart from all others of the same or of any other kind and the noun representing that idea will evidently be particular to that one object and applicable to no other, as "Charles," "Henry," and is called in English a "Proper noun." But when the name is of such a nature as to apply to a class of individuals grouped together in right of the possession of some common property, it ceases to belong to one individual only, and, being common to a number, is called a common noun. This is effected by the mental process called "abstraction." For instance, "John Thompson of London," is the name of an individual; abstract or withdraw the idea of his connexion with London, and you can consider him as one of a set classed together in right of the common property of being called "John Thompson;" "John Thompson" then becomes a term designating all the "John Thompsons" in the world.

Reject the idea of this class being designated "John," and you have a more general term naming all the "Thompsons." Abstract the idea of their being named "Thompson," and the still more general term "man," is arrived at, applied to all those possessed of that special property by which men are distinguished from all other animals. Casting away this idea, the common term "animal," is obtained, applied to all creatures possessing a certain common property not found in others. And withdrawing this idea, we arrive at the still more general term "thing." Thus common terms and common nouns are formed; and it is obvious that a name usually peculiar to an individual, may become the name of a class, if there be others to whom we can apply it. Thus we speak of the "Jameses of Scotland," &c.

(48.) It is worthy of remark that this mental faculty of abstraction is far less active or almost entirely wanting in very barbarous races, and is apparently entirely absent in the lower animals. In the dialects of very barbarous races, few or no common terms are found; and in tracing the progress of a language towards perfection by means of accessions of words from other dialects, we find that the names of individuals belong to the more ancient and ruder dialects, while the names of classes (abstract terms) are adopted from the dialect of some more advanced people; thus we have from the ruder Saxon the names of particular species of motion, and of particular colours, while for the words "colour" and "motion," indicating the two classes, we have recourse to the more polished Latin.

(49.) As, except by a peculiar usage, no one noun is at one time the name of a class, at another of an individual, no modification of the shape is requisite to indicate whether the name is "proper," or "common."

(50.) As every idea of a thing must stand in the mind either for one thing or more than one, so nouns in all dialects either should or do vary their shape in accordance with this mental modification. The modes of effecting

this change of number belong not to general grammar, but to the particular usages of different dialects.

(51.) When a judgment of the mind is expressed in words in any dialect, the nouns occurring in it *must* be names of persons speaking, persons spoken to, or persons spoken of; hence has arisen the grammatical property of nouns called in English "Person," which usually produces no change in the shape of the noun, and may be said consequently to have only a mental existence. Certain words (pronouns) called in consequence "Personal," do indeed change their shape to indicate the person, but nouns in general do not: nevertheless, in considering words in connexion with each other (parsing), the property called "person," is properly noticed, because in many dialects the verb changes its termination according to the person of the noun which is its subject.

(52.) All things are of the male, or the female, or of no sex: hence the words representing the ideas of these things have a corresponding grammatical distinction, called "Gender;" one "Masculine," comprehending names of males; another, "Feminine," for names of females; and the third called "Neuter," comprising *no gender* words, that is, names of things without sex. In these statements regarding general grammar, of course I do not take into account the peculiar usages of particular dialects, wherein, by a sort of figure, certain inanimate objects are spoken of as having sex. Taking as our guide the common definition of gender, "The distinction of sex," the above is the legitimate division; and the usage of the Greek, Latin, and some modern languages, wherein the names of things without sex have the grammatical peculiarities that can properly be attached only to the names of males and females, is altogether unphilosophical, and departs entirely from the great principle which constitutes the basis of general grammar, that words must accurately represent the ideas for which they stand.

In some dialects only occasional alterations in the shape of the word take place to indicate gender; as in the English "testator," "testatrix." To render such changes

legitimate, the body of the word in each should be the same, the termination only being altered as in the example adduced. In languages like the Latin, Greek, and some modern dialects, where the adjective alters its termination according to the gender of the noun to which it is attached, this question of gender becomes an important grammatical element, and the neglect of it, a fruitful source of errors: but in English the adjective undergoes no such change, and this ground of error is removed; and even in other dialects, how much better would it be, could the definition of gender be adhered to, and all names of males be called "masculine," of females, "feminine," and of things without sex, "neuter;" thus carrying out the principle alluded to, instead of calling the name of an animal, "neuter," and of rivers, "masculine!"

(53.) The last and perhaps the most important grammatical property of the noun, is called, "Case," and the mental circumstances on which it is based equally apply to all languages without exception; and any neglect or confusion in the verbal representation of these circumstances may render the words employed altogether useless for the fulfilment of the great end of language,—the expression of the opinion. If I entertain certain ideas of two individuals, "William" and "John," and also of the act of "striking"; and if the relations between these ideas, be, of William *doing* the act, and of John *enduring* it, it is plain that any confusion in the expression of these relations may render the words useless, or even cause them to convey a totally opposite meaning. The existence of these relations between ideas in the mind renders some means of expressing them necessary in all dialects; and without at present entering into the question, whether a change of termination, as in Latin and Greek, is necessary to constitute a real case, it is obvious that the relations and connexions existing in the mind between the ideas of nouns and other ideas must be clearly indicated by the corresponding words, otherwise, as I have already stated, the words will not convey the sense. Some means must consequently be adopted in all dialects to represent these rela-

tions, and such means, whether alterations of termination or not, may be called "Case."

(54.) What is Case? From what has just been stated, it appears that case, as it must exist in all dialects, is the relation existing between nouns and certain other words of a sentence, indicating the corresponding relations existing in the mind between the ideas represented by such words. Hence the common grammatical definition of case may be adopted, namely, 'The relation which nouns bear to other words with which they are connected in sense.' These relations exist between the ideas in the mind, without reference to the language used by the thinker, and they must be clearly represented by that language, whatever it may be. The means of doing so, adopted in various dialects, may be mentioned hereafter; at present the first point to be considered is the number and nature of these relations.

(55.) In forming a judgment of the mind, the ideas of things are usually contemplated in one or other of three relations with the other ideas constituting such judgment; namely, as the idea of a subject or thing specially thought of; as the idea of a thing possessing another thing; and thirdly as the idea of a thing unavoidably suggested to the mind by the very nature of some other idea. There are therefore three relations to be represented in every dialect, and therefore there should be at least three cases. We find, on examination, that each of these is susceptible of several minor variations; and if any dialect adopted means to represent each minor variation separately, that dialect would have so many additional cases; and it is very possible on the other hand to conceive the existence of a dialect so imperfect as to possess means of expressing only some of the relations in question.

(56.) These three cases are distinguished by names indicative of their natures. Thus the word representing the idea, of which the judgment is formed in the mind, is necessarily the name of the thing of which the assertion is made, and is said to be in the "naming or *Nominative* case"; that which represents a noun in the relation of

possession to another, is called *Possessive;* and the relation existing between a noun and some other word, which, unavoidably suggests the idea represented by the noun, is called the "*Objective* case." These relations, so named in English, may be considered as general, since they spring from the operations of the mind.

(57.) It has already been stated that these relations are susceptible of minor variations; but if these minor variations are similar in nature, they may fairly be represented by one case in language. The Nominative case, which properly expresses the precise name of the thing of which the assertion is made, namely, the subject, may be made to include several others; thus in the assertion, "Sir, the wind being favorable, the ship Arrow has started on her voyage;" "Ship," the name of the thing of which the assertion is made, is the legitimate Nominative; "Sir," the name of the person addressed, may also be called the Nominative case, though of a slightly different kind, distinguished as the "Nominative of address"; the noun "Arrow," being another name for the thing of which the assertion is made, is necessarily in the same relation as "ship," with the word making the assertion, and is therefore also the Nominative case; again the word "wind," not being in either of the positions indicated by the *other* two cases, is in English also called the Nominative, more especially as it becomes really the subject of an assertion, when a slight change of construction is made, —as, instead of saying "the wind being favorable" we may say, "as the wind is favorable." This last species of nominative is called in English the *Nominative Absolute.* Besides all these, certain verbs make assertions in such a way as to take after them other names for their respective subjects; as when I say, "Alexander was king," the latter noun is merely another name for the former, and is in the Nominative case, by what is called in English *Apposition*, which takes place when different names are used in the same assertion for the same thing. These names being in the same relation to some other word, are consequently in the same case.

(58.) As the same thing may be spoken of under different names, in the same assertion in any dialect, so that which we call "apposition" may be found in all dialects; and judging of case by the definition just given, nouns in apposition with each other will be in the same case in all dialects. There is an apparent exception to this statement in English; as when we say "The City of Toronto," the two nouns are different names for the same thing, but are not in the same case. This arises from the fact, that in using such an expression we violate the laws of the philosophy of grammar; as there is no relation in the mind between the idea represented by "city" and that represented by "Toronto" which would require the word "of" to express it, so we should not introduce that word, and should rather say "The City Toronto." But in this and in many other instances, various dialects, set aside by the mere arbitrary authority of usage and fashion, the great general laws of grammar, attaching to expressions, meanings, which the combinations of words in them, philosophically considered, will not bear.

(59.) Thus in dialects, where, as in English, the cases are not distinguished by terminations, the Nominative case may be found under various circumstances;—as first, The Nominative, subject to the verb (legitimate nominative); 2ndly, Nominative of Address; 3rdly, Nominative Absolute; 4thly, Nominative in apposition with another; and 5thly, Nominative after certain verbs which are usually followed by another name for the subject. It is obvious that the Nominative Absolute and Nominative of address are both "absolute" or "independent," being neither of them governed by any other word, and might therefore be called by the same name. Different names are conveniently used to mark the difference existing in the circumstances under which they occur. It is further evident that in dialects which distinguish the cases by terminations, some of the above relations, classed in English as Nominative, may be indicated by terminations marking other cases, as in Greek where the English Nominative Absolute is expressed by a Genitive case; and in Latin, where it is expressed by an Ablative case.

(60.) When the ideas represented by two nouns are so related that one is the name of the thing possessing the other, this relation is expressed in English by placing the former in the Possessive case, as "John's carriage," where, "John's" in English is said to be in the Possessive case. This relation may be found in all languages, whether they have a case to mark it or not.

(61.) When the idea represented by a word is of such a nature as to suggest unavoidably the existence of some idea following it, the relation between the two ideas is indicated by placing the word representing the latter in the case called in English "Objective." This specially occurs after two classes of words—those expressive of action passing on from the agent, and those words which indicate the relation existing in the mind between two ideas. Such words are known in English as "Transitive Verbs and Prepositions"; hence after these two kinds of words the Objective case is found. This relation must exist in all languages, because the ideas of action in the mind must include transitive action; and though a dialect may have no prepositions, the objective case which would otherwise follow them must be indicated by some means or other in every dialect, or, where it is omitted, such dialect must be imperfect, that is, express the thoughts imperfectly.

(62.) The relations indicated by case in language must, as has been said, be clearly represented, but the mode of doing so may vary in different dialects. The most common methods are two, namely, by *changing the termination*, and by *position*. As words represent ideas, it may be said to follow naturally, that every modification or relation of the idea should be indicated by effecting some change in the form of the word representing such idea. This is called in grammar "Inflection," and usually affects the termination. It was adopted to express case by many ancient languages, especially the Latin and Greek, as well as the old Saxon, on which our modern English is so materially based.

(63.) Though there are in Greek five, and in Latin six different terminations to express case, they nevertheless

indicate the same three relations already described as existing between ideas; the Nominate and Vocative cases indicating the first relation, agreeing with the various species of the English Nominative; the Genitive, indicating the second relation, and sometimes the third, namely, the English Possessive and the Objective; while the three remaining Latin cases, namely, the Dative, the Accusative and the Ablative indicate the various species of the objective relation,—the English objective case governed either by a transitive verb or a preposition. Two species of the Nominative case, namely, the subject of the verb and the Nominative of address, are sometimes distinguished by as many terminations in Latin, as, "Dominus," "Lord" (subject of verb), "Domine," O "Lord" (Nominative of address or Vocative.)

(64.) I have used the Latin as a convenient example of the different cases in different languages, while the relations they indicate are identical in all. Similar observations apply to the Greek and other languages.

(65.) One case, the Possessive, is distinguished in English by a termination, namely, 's, (s with an apostrophe.) This is taken from the ancient Saxon form of the Genitive case which ended in "es"; of this we retained the "s" marking the rejection of the "e," by an apostrophe. The Nominative and Objective are distinguished in English by their position, as written or uttered, the former being placed *before* the verb, and the latter *after* the transitive verb or preposition. But very often this is not adopted, as in the line—

"Breathes there a man with soul so dead."

Here we find the Objective case, "soul," placed naturally *after* the word "with," which unavoidably suggests it, and whose sense it completes; but "man," instead of being written *before* the verb, its natural position, is placed *after* it, and we only know that it is the subject by the obvious sense. Thus instead of the case guiding us to the meaning, the meaning here guides to the knowledge of the case; hence it has been asserted, that the grammatical consideration of

case exists only partially in the English dialect. In the line—

"Your columns the fathomless fountains lave,"

we are led to call "fountains" the Nominative, and "columns" the Objective case, solely in consequence of the meaning of the word "lave"; and in such sentences what we call "case" in English is not a means of indicating the relations, and may consequently be said to have no real existence.

(66.) Thus there are in all languages certain grammatical considerations attached to nouns, except where the dialect is so imperfect as not to possess means of expressing them. These are Kind (proper and common), Gender (masculine, feminine, and neuter), Number (singular and plural), Person (first, second, and third), and Case (nominative, possessive, and objective)—all of them representing some relations of the idea for which the noun stands, and some of them indicated by changes in the word, others not.

(67.) It may also be well remarked here, that in all dialects wherein the modifications and relations of the words correspond precisely with those of the ideas represented by such words, the philosophy of grammar is more strictly adhered to than in others, where such correspondence is more or less neglected; thus to have too many cases in one dialect is as unphilosophical as to have too few in another, or to call gender a distinction of sex and yet consider the names of things without sex as of the masculine or feminine gender.

CHAPTER VI.

THE ADJECTIVE—DEFINITION—GRAMMATICAL PROPERTIES—OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH—THE PRONOUN—SIMILAR TO THE NOUN—ITS SPECIES—ADVERBS—ADVERBIAL PHRASES.

(68.) From what has been said, it is evident that, in addition to the names of things and actions, the names of qualities are also necessary to the making of an assertion or expression of an opinion; hence the next important part

of speech to be considered is the "Adjective." All things possess qualities of some kind or other; hence words indicative of quality (not the *names of qualities*) are necessarily attached in language to the names of things; they are therefore defined as, "Words added to nouns to express qualities," and are called in English "adjectives," a name signifying "added to." Considered with reference to their mental origin, they represent ideas attached to the ideas of things in consequence of the mind believing the things represented by the latter to possess the qualities indicated by the idea so attached.

(69.) In some dialects, adjectives change their terminations to indicate gender, number, and case, but this is only a grammatical expedient adopted for convenience, to mark more exactly the particular noun to which the adjective is attached. Philosophically speaking, an adjective not being the name of a thing, cannot properly be possessed of any of the above qualities.

(70.) As a thing may possess a quality in various degrees, so adjectives may be expected to be susceptible of some modification of form to indicate the degree in which the quality is possessed, particularly when several things are compared with reference to the same quality. From the nature of the idea represented by an adjective, this is perhaps the only grammatical property which the form of the adjective might be expected to indicate. It is called "Comparison," and is as often indicated by additional words as by an inflection. In English, where no comparison is indicated, the adjective is said to be in the "Positive" degree; where two things are compared, the "Comparative" degree, marked by making the adjective end in "er," is used; and where three or more things are compared, the "Superlative" degree is used, wherein the adjective is made to end in "est." Even in dialects where this expression of comparison exists, it must be evident that there may be many adjectives not susceptible of it, because the qualities which they indicate may be incapable of being possessed in different degrees. Thus of three things compared together as regards the quality expressed by the adjective "large"

one may be "large" (positive), another "larger" (comparative), and the third may be "largest" (superlative); but this process cannot be undergone by such adjectives as "some," "other," "all," &c., because they do not express qualities capable of being possessed in degrees.

(71.) The idea of quality in connection with the class of words called Adjectives is to be considered in the most general sense, as that which being attached to the idea of a thing causes the latter to differ in so far, however slightly, from what it would be without such an addition. Thus in the phrases, "time past," "time present," "time to come" the noun "time" differs in each instance by the qualities expressed by the words "past," "present," and "to come"; hence "to come," (taken as one word) is just as much an adjective as "past" or "present."

(72.) It may be added that the nature of many adjectives in all languages is such as to require after them various words or phrases to complete the sense. This is the case, because such is the nature of the ideas they represent. The idea for example expressed by "fond," is such as to require another idea in relation to it expressive of the direction of the fondnes; and as this has to be expressed in words, if you use the expression "He is fond," you must, to complete the sense of "fond," add some such phrase as "of learning," &c.; but these phrases consist in English of separate words, and, with others of similar character, will properly be considered under the heads of "analysis" and the "structure of sentences."

(73.) The three principal parts of speech, so far as their nature is dependent on the philosophy of grammar, have now been discussed. The methods by which they are made to adapt themselves to the expression of sentiments, will be considered elsewhere: and though these methods are connected intimately with the particular usages of individual dialects, they are also sufficiently based on the great principles of general grammar to be alluded to with propriety in a work of this nature.

(74.) The other parts of speech are little more than conveniences of language, which might possibly be omitted

from a dialect without incapacitating it for the expression of opinion. To commence with the pronoun. The common use of language leads to constant abbreviation; in the every-day discourse of life our ideas flow more rapidly than our words, hence we are apt to curtail the latter, both in sound and number, in every way that does not interfere with the sense, and often without considering this limit, as may readily be perceived by any one who notices the use of the little word "it," both by speakers and writers. In fact we rarely utter a sentence, without, for convenience sake, omitting various words required to represent the ideas we are communicating; and we do this more frequently where the same idea is repeated. In this latter case, it is very often much shorter and much more agreeable to the ear to avoid the repetition of the word standing for that idea, and to substitute for it one or other of a class of words, in general short and easily pronounced, which are called in consequence "Pronouns," that is "words used instead of nouns."

(75.) It is evident that all pronouns are in reality nouns because they possess the distinctive quality which characterises the noun; that is, they are names of things. Thus if I use the word "it," meaning a pencil, "it" is the name of that thing for the time being. What, then, is the difference between a noun and a pronoun? So little, that the pronoun may be included under the class "noun." It consists in the fact, that every noun is the name either of some class or of some individual, whereas the pronoun is a sort of general noun, that may be made the name of any thing or class, limited only by certain grammatical considerations regarding gender, number, and person.

(76.) As a pronoun is therefore actually a noun, it may be distinguished in any dialect by the grammatical properties belonging to nouns; that is, it may have kind, case, gender, number, and person.

(77.) Many languages may exist without the class of words called pronouns, but where they are found, their division into kinds is not based on the same circumstance that decides the two great species of nouns, namely the species of ideas they represent, whether grouped in classes

or representing individuals. The divisions of pronouns in most languages are arbitrary, being based both upon their meaning, and upon certain peculiarities in their form. Thus in English (and the example will do for most modern languages,) there are first, the "Personal pronouns," so called because they indicate the persons by their form, whereas other names of things do not do so. They are, for the 1st person "I," plural "We"; 2nd "Thou," plural "Ye" or "You," and 3rd "He," "She," or "It," plural "They." These are real pronouns, and are always used without nouns, and therefore represent them; whereas many other words which are frequently called pronouns, are in fact adjectives, referring to some noun expressed or understood. From the personal pronoun are formed certain other words which may be classed as pronouns, denoting possession, and indicating the person and number by their form. Thus we have from the above, in regular sequence, "mine," "thine," "hers," "ours," "yours," "theirs." These are called, "possessive pronouns"; but the corresponding words similarly formed, namely, "my," "thy," "his," "her," "its," "our," "your," "their," are better classed as possessive pronominal adjectives, because they are found joined to nouns.

(78.) Nouns in general do not distinguish their cases except the possessive, by terminations; but the personal pronouns, on the contrary, vary their forms, that is, they undergo inflection, to mark case; and as there is a different pronoun for each number, person, and gender, a personal pronoun by its form alone usually indicates the gender, number, person, and case.

(79.) All pronouns can have a precise meaning only by their reference to the nouns for which they stand, and they consequently carry back the mind thus to some thing previously mentioned. Thus, if I say, "Send John, *he* will go," the word "he" immediately carries back or refers the mind to the person, "John," previously mentioned. But there are also certain pronouns in English which are said to do this in a much more pointed and special manner, and which, by the usage of the language, are always placed

as near as possible to the words for which they stand. Such pronouns from two Latin words signifying "to carry back," are called "relative," and have the additional peculiarity of coupling assertions together. From this circumstance they should be called *conjunctive* pronouns, as other pronouns *relate*, as much as they. The Relative pronouns in English are "who," "which," "what," and "that." Of these "which" and "what" are adjectives rather than pronouns, as they often are, and always can be joined to nouns; "who," like the personal pronouns, changes its termination to mark the cases. "Who," "which," and "what," are often used in asking questions, when they are denominated "Interrogative" pronouns. "This" and "that," and their plurals, "these" and "those," called "Demonstrative" pronouns, are really adjectives, being always joined to a noun expressed or understood.

(80.) Pronouns of a character similar to the above are found in those languages sufficiently perfect to possess such a part of speech; but several of these, as in the Greek and Latin, though commonly called pronouns, are really adjectives, as "ille," &c. in Latin, and "houtos" in Greek, with various others.

(81.) There are in English several other words that are used in a pronominal sense, chiefly to designate something, the name of which the speaker has not indicated. Such words are, "One," and "Others." The former may perhaps, under most circumstances be considered an adjective, because a noun may be supposed to be understood; but in such sentences as "One does not often see it," "One" is evidently used pronominally, as standing indefinitely for "any person," or "a person," and thus may be called an "indefinite" pronoun; "others," is undoubtedly always a pronoun, and is never joined to a noun. In the sentence "Others say so," "others" cannot be joined to a noun, but evidently stands for "other persons," and thus has a compound force. It also is an indefinite pronoun.

(82.) Thus pronouns, however convenient, are not essential, because they only stand for ideas which have their own peculiar representatives in nouns. It is probable, how-

ever, that there are few languages in which pronouns are not found.

(83.) Of the remaining kinds of words, perhaps the "adverb" is next in importance. As ideas of action, from their very nature, may be modified by ideas indicating the various relations under which action may be contemplated, such as time, manner, cause, place, &c., so there may be words representing these modifying ideas. Such words, being more especially added to verbs, have acquired the appropriate name of Adverbs; and this class of words includes also those which are added to adjectives to express the degree in which the adjective indicates the quality. As these adverbs thus modify, so they may modify in a greater or less degree, and consequently other adverbs can be added to them for this purpose. From these considerations, the adverb is defined as "A word added to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, to modify it." In fact, it may readily be shown, that an adverb is a word representing any idea that modifies an idea of quality. All verbs, except the verb "to be," include the idea of quality, and it is in right of this circumstance that they admit of being modified by adverbs: thus "runs" is equivalent to "is running;" and when we say, "runs rapidly," the adverb obviously modifies the word "running," which equally evidently expresses a quality in some subject. Similarly in the sentence, "Man lives carelessly," "lives" includes the idea of the quality "living," asserted of "man"; and that quality is modified, as regards manner, by the adverb "carelessly."

(84.) As adjectives represent the idea of quality, and adverbs represent ideas modifying the former, it follows that this connexion will be indicated by some connexion between the words expressing those ideas: and such is usually the case, adverbs in most languages being formed immediately from adjectives, by a slight change of termination, and very often some form of the adjectives being used adverbially. Thus in English most adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding "ly" to the termination of the latter, as "happy," "happily," &c. In Latin and Greek

a similar course is adopted, in the former by making the adjective end in "e" or "ter," and in the latter by adopting the termination "os," while in both, the neuter adjective is frequently used as an adverb.

The French dialect also affords another familiar example of the adverb formed from the adjective.

(85.) The adverb is not an essential part of speech; its duty can generally be performed by a combination of a noun and adjective governed by a preposition: thus "happily" may be expressed by "in a happy manner"; "here" may be expressed by "in this place"; and the same expedient may be adopted in other languages as well as in English. There is no doubt, however, that such expedients would interfere much with facility of expression, although many adverbial modifications are of such a nature that they are unavoidably expressed by phrases instead of single words, as, for instance, "He lived in London," where, in indicating the place of the action, it is found necessary to introduce a name of a place. In many other instances, as will be shown hereafter, the use of adverbial phrases instead of adverbs is unavoidable, and is constantly adopted in many languages.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS—CONJUNCTIONS—ARTICLES—INTERJECTIONS—PARTICIPLES.

(86.) The preposition performs a very important duty in language, though it may be questioned whether it is the sign of an idea; it is properly the sign of some relation existing in the mind between an idea of a thing and some other idea. Relation, properly the act of carrying back, may be described as the species of connection that exists between two ideas of things, by which the one unavoidably suggests the other, and the mind is as unavoidably carried from the one to the other. This relation between ideas is often expressed by terminations, that is, by altering the termination of the word representing the latter idea; but

It is often expressed by a separate word, and such word, being legitimately placed *before the object of the relation*, receives the name "Preposition" (placed before); hence the correct definition, "Preposition is a word placed before a noun to show the relation between it and some other word."

(87.) As the word after the preposition is the object of the relation, that word must be a noun; and, as a relation exists between two things, the word before the preposition, if it be not a grammatical noun, must at least be a notional (24) word, that is, it must include the idea of a thing, just as a verb includes the idea of action or assertion, and the adjective, of a quality. For instance, if I say, "The man goes," the very nature of the idea represented by the word "goes" unavoidably suggests some following idea of a place; and the relation between these two will be expressed by some preposition, as in English by "to" or "from," whichever will indicate the actual relation existing in the mind. Thus the above words cannot express the full sense, but must be completed by some phrase stating the place, as "The man goes to London," where the word "to" represents the relation between the idea of the act of going, and the idea of the place "London"; that is, the word "to" is a preposition showing the relation between "goes" and London; but to avoid the *apparent* incongruity of speaking of a relation between "goes," grammatically a verb, and the noun "London," we may in such sentences describe "to" as a preposition showing the *grammatical connection* between "goes" and "London." In the same way, in the phrase "fond of money," "of" shows the relation between the quality "fondness" and the object of it, "money," and may be described as before.

(88.) As there may be a great variety of relations existing between ideas, and as the use of case in grammar is to indicate relations, so it has been asserted, that there should be a different case for every relation requiring a separate preposition. Very little consideration will show the absurdity of such a supposition; thus, "to," "from," and all other prepositions take after them the object of the

relation, and that word, being an object, is said to be in the objective case, and it is quite clear that the condition of such word as the object of a relation is not altered by the particular nature of the relation expressed by the preposition.

(89.) As a preposition, because it represents merely the relation existing in the mind between the two ideas, and servse only to connect two other words, is commonly considered a merely relative word, not in any way including the idea of a thing having an existence external to the mind; so a "Conjunction," which connects sentences together, may perhaps be viewed in a similar light, that is, as representing only a connection. In forming a judgment, the mind may compare several ideas of quality with the idea of the same subject, or the ideas of several things may be connected together in the mind with reference to some judgment, or several judgments may be connected in the mind in such a way that the sense goes on through them all, so that no termination of the sense occurs until the end of the last.

(90.) In these and similar instances, language is required to adopt some means of representing such connections, and though we may conceive the possibility of indicating them by some other means, an altered termination, for instance, yet separate words are obviously the most convenient; hence conjunctions are defined as "Words that couple words together, or assertions together." Thus in the sentence, "John visited Toronto and Hamilton, and there he saw William," the two ideas represented by the words, "Toronto," "Hamilton," are evidently associated together in the mind with regard to the idea of the action, "visited;" also the two assertions (propositions), "he saw," and "he visited," are similarly connected, and this duty is performed by the word *and;* nor will it make any difference in the nature of the conjunction, whether we suppose it to couple the two words, "Toronto," "Hamilton," or the verb repeated, "John visited Toronto," "John visited Hamilton."

(91.) If I say, "A great and good and wise man

should be loved;" the ideas of the three qualities are evidently associated in the mind as all existing in the man, and this association we learn from the conjunction "and," coupling the corresponding words to each other. If we repeat the assertion, "A great man should be loved," &c., we evidently alter the sense; hence the conjunction evidently couples the words, and not the assertions, that might *apparently* be framed from the same sentence. Again, "Two and three make five." Here it requires no explanation to show that the conjunction couples the words "two" and "three," since we cannot say "two make five," and "three make five." Thus it appears that conjunctions couple both assertions together, and also single words.

(92.) The very fact of things being intimately connected together, argues some similarity in them, and thus the ideas that are so connected are usually similar grammatically, and in the same relation to some other ideas. Hence in all dialects where conjunctions are found, some represent connections of so intimate a nature, that the words coupled by them are necessarily of a like kind, and in the same relations with other words, as exhibited in the foregoing example, where the words, "Toronto," "Hamilton," are coupled by "and," are both names of things, and both in the same relation to "visited." Thus there is one class of conjunctions indicating a very intimate connection, and consequently always coupling like words or phrases; these are in the English language "and," "or," "but," and certain compounds "either," "neither," "nor," (I speak of these words as they are commonly used).

(93.) Besides the connections between ideas and assertions above alluded to, there is another species of connection existing in the mind between assertions, wherein the latter assertion, besides being so connected with the former, also expresses a modification of some word in it. Such a connection must of course be expressed by a conjunction; but as the fact of the modification has also to be expressed, the conjunction has to do another duty, namely, to represent the modification, which being usually one commonly expressed by an adverb, the conjunction will in such cases

be also adverbial in its nature, and therefore may be called an *adverbial conjunction.*

(94). Further, as the latter assertion expresses a modification of some word in the former, it is dependent, and thus adverbial conjunctions are necessarily followed by dependent assertions (propositions). In the following sentence, "When I went thither, I saw him," there are two assertions (propositions),—"I went thither," and "I saw him." In sense, the order is, "I saw him when I went thither." It is evident that the two judgments of the mind expressed by these assertions are connected in the mind, hence to fulfil the purpose of language that connection must be clearly expressed. Also the latter proposition is obviously a modification of time to the action "saw," expressed in the former, and the connecting word indicates this circumstance also. Both these duties are evidently performed by the word "when" in the above example, for it clearly refers to the time of both the actions "saw" and "went." And if we resolve it into words expressing the same meaning, this fact will be evident; thus, instead of "when", we may say, "at the time on which;" when the sentence becomes, "I saw him at the time on which I went thither." Here the first assertion is, "I saw him at the time," and the next is, "on which I went thither." In other words, "when" is in sense a part of *both* the assertions, and is consequently the connecting link between them, just as the hinge is between the door and the wall, whereby the former is attached to and depends on the latter.

(95.) The same fact may be shown with more or less facility with regard to all other words of similar character, namely, those which connect assertions and refer to some modification of time, manner, cause, condition, &c. Thus in the following examples the words, "because," "how," "as," "wherefore," evidently both connect the assertions and indicate the modifications alluded to: "I did it because I chose to do it," two assertions coupled by "because," the latter indicating the modification of cause; "I will tell you how I did it," two assertions, the latter indicating

the manner and coupled by "how;" "I did it as you told me,"—"as," the coupling word indicating manner; "Tell me wherefore you did it,"—"wherefore," the coupling word, indicating the cause; and so on of others. All these words may be resolved into phrases according to their meaning, as, "how," equivalent to "the manner in which," "as," "the manner in which"; "wherefore," "the cause for which," &c. Thus these words are adverbial and conjunctive in their nature, and, though here classed as conjunctions, may also be called "conjunctive adverbs."

(96.) Some of these adverbial conjunctions differ somewhat from the rest in the modification they express. Most of those already spoken of refer, as stated, to some modification of the action expressed in the preceding assertion, and thus complete the sense of the verb; but the words, "whence," "whither," "where," and some others, apparently indicate a modification belonging to some noun telling the place of the previous action, as "Tell me the name of the place *whence* you come," "Show me the place *where* he lives." In each of these the dependent assertion evidently expresses something about the noun, "place," and not about the verb as in the previous instances. The reality of this difference between, "where," "whence," "whither," and the other adverbial conjunctions, may however be questioned, as these words, strictly speaking, are improperly used in the examples just given. "Where" signifies, "in which place;" "whence," "from which place"; "whither," "to which place"; and wherever it can be avoided, the word, "place," should not be used before them, as it becomes a mere repetition; thus it would be better to say, "Tell me *whence* you come," or "Tell me the place *from which* you come," &c.

(97.) I have already stated (77), that the relative pronoun connects assertions or propositions; and in the above examples, where, instead of the adverbial conjunctions, the corresponding phrases have been used, the propositions are coupled by the relative pronoun, (which thus does the duty of a conjunction,) and the assertion or proposition following it is equally dependent. This property of the

relative pronoun is based on the circumstance that it refers so immediately to the noun for which it stands, and is placed in so close proximity to it both in writing and speaking, that it unavoidably becomes a link of connection between the assertion in which it is, and that, in which the noun for which it stands, occurs. In all languages where this class of words is found, its nature will be much the same, because it is based on the mental connections the word is used to represent.

(98.) There is in many dialects a species of word not exactly representing an idea of quality, but placed before the name of a thing, the idea of which is considered either indefinitely, as any one out of many of the same kind, or as a particular one considered to some extent definitely, but without reference to a special name. The word doing this duty is called an "article." In English the articles are "A" (written "an" before a vowel) and "The." From their very nature, these words may be prefixed to any noun that is spoken of as one out of several of the same kind. They are evidently a species of general adjective, and should be so considered; they are not found in all dialects, and in some are used somewhat differently.

(99.) Any passion, emotion, or feeling, suddenly or violently excited in the mind, such as joy, pain, grief, fright, astonishment, &c., is apt to manifest itself by a cry, or a sudden utterance of some sort; and if this cry be an articulate word, it is, "a word used to express some sudden emotion." Moreover, as it is frequently thrown in between the parts of a sentence, it takes its name, "Interjection," from two Latin words signifying, "thrown between." As all persons are liable to sudden bursts of emotion, the savage perhaps more than the civilized man, so there is no dialect without what may be called interjections; in fact, sudden exclamations of any sort may be considered as coming under this head, and very often, other words very different in their original character, are used interjectionally. Thus in English, "hush," "hist," "hark," "hearken," commonly called interjections, are really imperative moods of verbs; so are, "lo," (look) and "behold;" the sudden

exclamation "what" indicative of astonishment or surprise, is really a pronoun; "ho," "ha," "alas," are pure interjections; and the first cry a child utters on its entry into this world, approaching, as it probably does, the sound of "oh" or "ah," may be called an interjection. Admitting "oh" to be a word, it is the first we use in infancy, the last that abandons us in the close of life, and is common to very many dialects.

(100.) One circumstance is remarkable about this class of words; they have no direct grammatical connection with any of the other words among which they are uttered, and are as often used separately as in combination with others. "Alas! I cannot go;" here there is no grammatical connection or relation between the interjection "alas," and any of the other words. There is a connection indeed in sense, thus, "alas" is an expression indicating grief, and if grief be felt it must be for some cause, this cause is expressed by the following words; so far there is a connection in sense, but that connection is not expressed by any of the expedients of language except the circumstance of juxta-position.

(101.) In very many languages there is a class of words directly formed from verbs, and therefore, to some extent, verbal in shape; expressing action, and therefore verbal in meaning; but not making an assertion, and consequently not actually verbs; they are, therefore, some other part of speech with some verbal qualities; and as they thus partake of the natures of two parts of speech, they are called "Participles," from two Latin words signifying "to take part of." As these words are frequently considered separate parts of speech, and their nature greatly mistaken, they require a separate description.

(102.) Verbs, when carefully considered, will be found to consist, so far as regards their meaning and nature, of two parts, namely, a verbal word indicating the particular kind of action asserted of the subject, and the word joining it with the subject and making the assertion. This latter is in English the verb "to be," (which has a representative in other dialects,) and from the connecting duties it

performs, is called the "Copula." In this sense it is understood as doing no other duty whatever, and so far as it does any other duty, by including the idea of time, or any other of the modifications usually attached to verbs, it is something more than the mere copula. The other part is the verbal word, which, as I said, indicates the action expressed by the verb. When I say, "The man kills," I am asserting the action of "killing" of the subject "man"; thus "man" is doing the action of "killing," or more shortly, "man is killing"; the word "kills," therefore, both designates the nature of the action asserted, and includes the copula "is." The former is the participle. It is obvious that the copula may be used without being followed by a verbal word, as "Man is mortal." The evident intention of these words is to assert the quality "mortal", of the subject "man"; but the word "is" can not be used without, unavoidably, at the same time indicating the idea of existence; so far as it merely asserts a quality of a subject, it is the copula; so far as it includes the idea of existence, it is performing a duty similar to that performed by any other verb. There is, therefore, no word in the English language, which can be called a pure copula.

(103.) As the verbal word or participle does not make the assertion, it is not a verb, and must consequently be either one of the other parts of speech, or a new one not yet mentioned. In all the circumstances in which it can be used, the participle will be found to be either an *adjective* or a *noun;* but it is also verbal, therefore every participle is either a verbal adjective or verbal noun; and may be defined as "a word which partakes of the nature of a verb and adjective, or of a verb and noun."

A few examples will illustrate this. "The man killing the horse was shot"; here the word "killing" is obviously joined in sense to "man," and expresses a quality in it, so that the individual alluded to differs by the possession of that quality, from what he is, when not so occupied. "Killing" is therefore an adjective, and if expressed in some language, (Latin, for instance,) where adjectives

change their terminations in accordance with the case, gender, and number, of the nouns to which they are attached, would be made to agree in these particulars with the word representing "man." Again, the word "shot" is applied to "man" through the instrumentality of "was" in a precisely similar manner, and is similarly a verbal adjective, though differing from "killing," in its verbal capacity, as shall be noticed hereafter.

(104.) "Having killed the horse, the man returned"; in this sentence, "having killed" is evidently joined to "man," as "killing" was in the former example, from which indeed it differs only as regards the modification of time, the one referring to the present, the other to the past time. Considered as one word it is equally an adjective. In the phrases, "time present," "time past," and "time to come," the words "present," and "past" are undoubtedly adjectives, and "to come," (as one word) is equally so, differing from the two others only by referring to a future time, instead of a past and present.

(105.) But these participles or verbal words may also be nouns, "names of actions." In the phrase, "seeing is believing" "seeing" is obviously the name of the thing of which the assertion is made, and is consequently a noun in the nominative case, subject to "is." Again in the proposition, "On seeing me he fled"; "seeing" is the object of the relation expressed by "on," and is consequently a noun; if the word "on" be used, the meaning must be, "on" something or other, and the word after it (as is the case with every preposition,) must unavoidably be a noun. In the very common expression, "I don't mind (care for, regard,) giving it," ("doing it, &c.,") we have the verbal nouns, "giving," "doing," &c., objects of a transitive verb.

(106.) There is a very common form of expression used in some languages, (English and French, for instance,) to indicate in verbs peculiar shades of division of time, which exhibits the verbal noun under a different aspect, and requires some explanation, more particularly as it has been the subject of serious error. We say, "The man has built

a ship," using "has built" as one word to represent a particular tense of the verb "to build." But these are in reality two words, and are invariably written and spoken as such, being moreover often separated from each other by several intervening words; they should, accordingly, be examined separately. When we do so, we find that "has" is the present tense of the verb "to have," (to be in possession of,) and "built" is some participle of the verb "to build"; both "have" and "build" are transitive verbs, and each must have its respective object; if we say, "The man has," we must mean that he has something, and the word representing that thing must necessarily be its object; so of the verb "to build," it must also have an object.

Some writers explain such a sentence thus, "The man has a ship as a built thing," but this violates the sense, because according to it, the assertion would be, that the man has (or is in possession of,) the ship, which is certainly not what is meant, for the sentence does not by any means assert or mean that he is now in possession of the ship, and so far as that sentence announces anything, he may have sold or lost the ship years before. The real meaning is, "The man is in possession of the act of having built a ship." In fact, the word "ship" is the object of the act of building, and the word "built" is the object of the action expressed by "has." It is true "built" is commonly a passive word, but in such expressions, we invariably take the participle in an active signification, as indeed is proved by the very meaning we put on such a phrase, calling "has built" an active transitive verb, governing the object "ship," which in such a sentence clearly receives the action of "building" and not of "having," as has just been shown.

(107.) All this is even more evident in another instance where the participle is not part of a *transitive* verb. In the example, "The man has gone," two actions are named that of "having," which is transitive, and that of "going," intransitive. Now where is the object of the transitive word "has"? It can only be the word "gone," which

is the name of the action, of which the man is in possession; this precisely agrees with the meaning "The man is in possession of the act of having gone." In all such sentences, "gone" is a verbal noun in the objective case, and this explanation applies to all similar sentences when any other form of the verb "to have" is used. The English participle is thus always either a noun or an adjective; in Latin and Greek the participles are adjectives; the former possesses verbal nouns under different forms (gerunds and supines) and in the latter, the infinitive mood does duty as a verbal noun.

(108.) These words (participles) being verbal nouns, have some of the properties of the verb; thus, as they imply action, the word to which any one of them is applied must be the name of a thing either *doing* or *enduring* that action; in the one case the participle will be active, as "The man *killing*," and in the other it will be passive, as "The man *killed*." For the same reason, (because it implies action) the participle may have forms for the three principal divisions of time, and this is the case in English, (admitting the compound forms,) as "killing," present; "having killed," past; "about to kill," or "to kill," future. As the nature of the action implied by the participle must be identical with that expressed by the verb from which it is formed, "the participle necessarily takes after it the same construction that is found after its verb." Thus the participle of a transitive verb, being transitive in its nature, takes an object after it, as "He is killing the horse," where "horse" is the object of "killing"; the participle of a verb signifying locomotion will take after it two adjuncts or complements beginning respectively with "to" and "from" (either expressed or understood) because it is impossible to perform such an action without the movement taking place *from* one place *to* another.

(109.) A passive participle like its verb must have after it a phrase indicating the agent, as "A horse killed *by the man*:" and one of the most important applications of this principle is exhibited in the instance of verbs which take after them the same case as before them, and whose parti-

ciples consequently do the like; thus in the sentence, "I went to the city called Gaza," "Gaza" is the objective case after "called," (not object of,) because there is an objective ("city") before it; the passive verb "to be called" takes the same case after it as before it, and its participle "called" does the same.

CHAPTER VIII.

PROPOSITIONS—THEIR PARTS MAY FORM INTERROGATIONS—SUBJECT—COPULA—ATTRIBUTE—PREDICATE—NUMBER OF WORDS IN EACH PART—COMPLEMENTS—COMPOUND AND COMPLEX PROPOSITIONS—PRINCIPAL AND DEPENDENT PROPOSITIONS—SENTENCES.

(110.) Having now discussed the different classes of words separately we shall proceed to consider them together for the expression of opinion. (7)

The nature of a judgment of the mind has been already alluded to (7) and the mental operation by which it is effected. As a judgment of the mind consists of three parts, (7 and 8) so the words communicating it must necessarily be grouped in three parts. These words taken together *express an assertion* or *ask a question*, and form what is called a "proposition," which may therefore be defined, "A judgment of the mind expressed in words." It must have three parts, as already stated, because the judgment of the mind has three parts. These parts are: the Subject, "the name of the thing spoken of"; the Attribute, which "expresses the quality asserted of the subject;" and the Copula, (verb "to be,") "which joins them together." Whenever the verb "to be" (the word making the assertion) is not used, the attribute and copula are expressed by one word. The attribute and copula so united form what is called the "Predicate," and as this is the case in the great majority of propositions, they are conveniently divided into "subject and predicate," which latter differs from the attribute by expressing the assertion,

as well as the quality asserted. Hence if the verb "to be" be *not* used, the proposition must be divided into two parts, namely, Subject and Predicate. Thus in the sentence, "The bird flies," "the bird" is the subject, and "flies" the predicate, evidently including the copula or asserting word, "is," and the attribute "flying," being equivalent to "The bird is flying." Again in the proposition, "Man is mortal," we have "man" the subject, "is" the verb or copula, and "mortal" the attribute: but if we take "is mortal" together, it constitutes the predicate, because it includes both the attribute and the asserting word.

(111.) It must be carefully observed, that the verb "to be" is the copula only when it merely couples the attribute to the subject, anything beyond this mere coupling belongs to the predicate; hence, whenever the verb "to be" is used in such a way as to include any other consideration, such, for instance, as the modification of time, it cannot be considered a pure copula and the proposition must be divided into subject and predicate. In the example "He was honest," we cannot properly divide it into subject "he," copula "was," attribute "honest"; because "was" includes the modification of time, which should be separated from the copula, thus, "He is a person formerly honest," the attribute being, "a person formerly honest"; indeed, the better way in all propositions is to divide into subject and predicate.

(112.) The mind in proceeding to form a judgment may be in doubt as to the agreement of the two ideas, and thus may question it, instead of coming to a decision thereon; the words used in such a case, following the connections of the ideas, cannot form an assertion, that is, cannot assert the attribute of the subject, but on the contrary, form a question. Thus, "Is he honest?" contains all the parts of an assertion, and may consequently for convenience' sake, in all grammatical analysis, be treated as one, though no assertion is made. Thus, "He goes" makes an assertion and is consequently a proposition, while "Goes he?" having the same words as subject and

predicate, only asks a question. The same words are used in each case, because the same ideas are represented; the difference is in the nature of the connection between the ideas, and that difference is usually expressed, in English at least, by the position of the words, though it is also indicated in modern writing by the common mark (?) called a note of interrogation.

(113.) Care must be taken, when several words are used, to distinguish the exact predicate correctly; thus in the proposition, "The ship sails fast," the technical predicate is expressed by the words "sails fast," the meaning being, that in the above example, the quality of "sailing fast" is asserted of the ship.

(114.) There is no precise limitation to the number of words required to express a judgment of the mind, that is, any number of words may be required to form a proposition. But though there can be no rule laid down on such a point, it is obvious that the use of very many words would tend to obscure the sense, and would indicate a confused and inaccurate mode of thinking on the part of the speaker. The subject is said to be the name of the thing spoken of, but the thing may be of such a nature, or may be known under such an aspect, that no one word can express it; or in the particular assertion about to be made, it may be requisite to allude to it under a variety of modifications; in these cases many words may be requisite to describe it satisfactorily and make the sense clear; all these words, no matter for their number, will then go to constitute the subject.

Suppose, for instance, that I am thinking of a mountain in Australia, which perhaps has no name, and that I wish to make an assertion about it, I may have to indicate it by some such words as the following: "The mountain in Australia about 500 miles from the southern coast, near the left bank of the river; and remarkable for its precipitous sides, thickly clothed with trees"; all these words constitute the name of the mountain in question, are necessary for presenting accurately to others the idea of it as it exists in my mind, and will be the subject of the assertion I am about to make of it.

(115.) Then the idea of the quality I wish to assert of it, may be of such a nature as to require a considerable number of words to express it clearly and effectively, hence the predicate also may consist of a number of words, as "shoots upward towards the clouds from a vast plain, to the height of 7000 feet." Add this predicate to the subject just given, and you have a complete proposition, such as may be found in any tolerably perfect dialect, each part consisting of a number of words, because the ideas forming the judgment to be expressed require these words to represent them accurately.

(116.) In examining this proposition it will be readily perceived that the mere idea contemplated by the mind, stripped of all the modifications of place and other descriptive adjuncts, is expressed by the word "Mountain"; while the idea of the quality compared with it, similarly viewed, is represented by the word "shoots." Thus the actual proposition, excluding the phrases attached to each of the above words to limit its application, is, "mountain shoots." These are, therefore, the principal words of the respective parts; "mountain," of the subject, and "shoots," of the predicate. The other phrases are inserted to fill up or complete the sense, and are consequently called "Complements," or by some, "adjuncts." A complement, therefore, is "A word or words added to another to complete the sense."

(117.) In the subject of the foregoing example the principal word, "Mountain," has first several complements of place, as, "in Australia,"—"about 500 miles from the southern coast,"—"near the left bank of the river";—then there is a descriptive complement, namely, "remarkable for its precipitous sides, thickly clothed with trees." In the same way, "shoots," the principal word of the predicate, has several complements, as, "upwards,"—"towards the clouds,"—"from a vast plain."—"to the height of 7000 feet." In each of these complements, which consist of more than one word, it will always be found, that some one word is grammatically the principal, namely, "that on which the others depend"; or, to describe this connection

more accurately, "that word, whose sense is completed by the addition of another, is principal with regard to that other"; and this connection may be traced through any number of words connected in sense until we reach a single word. Thus in the complement "in Australia," the sense of "in" would be incomplete if "Australia" were omitted; hence, "in" is the principal word, and "Australia" its complement.

(118.) The complement beginning, "remarkable," &c., is a more complicated example; the mind, entertaining the idea of the "mountain," attached to it the idea of the quality represented by these words. But, "remarkable" alone does not express enough; its sense would be necessarily incomplete without the addition of some words descriptive of the cause, in right of which the mountain may be considered "remarkable"; hence, that word is principal, and the others, so added, are a complement or complements. Thus, "remarkable" is completed by, "for its precipitous sides, thickly clothed with trees." Of these words, "for" is the principal, the remainder being added to it to complete the sense. Of these latter, the word "sides" immediately completes "for"; it is, therefore, the principal. A little examination shows us that there are several words or phrases added to "sides" to complete it, as "its," "precipitous," "thickly clothed with trees;" that is, "sides" has these three complements. In the last, "clothed" is the principal word, having two complements, namely, "thickly," and "with trees"; in this latter, "with" is the principal word, completed by "trees."

(119.) Of course, words may be omitted in any complement, and indeed in few instances are all the words uttered or written which the sense renders necessary. Thus the complement, "about 500 miles from the southern coast," evidently indicates the distance of the mountain from the coast; hence, some word indicating this circumstance must be introduced, as "distant." "About 500 miles" is the measure of that distance; and the relation existing between "distant" and the measure of distance must be expressed by some word, either "about" or "by,"

understood. The latter is the more correct, as "about" in such phrases modifies the numerical adjective, "500"; hence, the fully expressed complement is, "distant from the southern coast *by* about 500 miles." Here the principal word, whose sense is completed by the others, is "distant," having two complements, namely, "from the southern shore," and "by about 500 miles." In the *former* of these, "from" is the principal, completed by "the southern shore"; in this, "shore" is the principal, completed by "the" and "southern." In the *latter*, "by" is the principal word, completed by "miles," which is completed by "about 500"; of these, "500" is the principal, completed by "about," (assuming "about" to be an adverb equivalent to "nearly").

It is evident that the above parts and complements will be found in the proposition, no matter in what language it is expressed.

(120.) In a similar way all other complements may be examined and analyzed; each complement also can be named from its nature; thus one will tell the time, another, the place, another, the cause, another, the degree, (in which a quality is possessed) another, a comparison, &c. In general the name can always be applied in accordance with the obvious meaning of the complement. This will be more clearly indicated in the "Examples for Analysis."

(121.) Thus it appears that an assertion or proposition may be expressed in two words, one for the subject and one for the predicate; or in many words, according to the number requisite to express fully each part. In propositions, where the subject or predicate consists of more words than one, one of these will always be the *principal*, and the others *complements*, and when a complement consists of more words than one, one of them will be principal and the others, its complements; and so on down to the last word.

(122.) As the same assertion may be made of several subjects, so there may be several principal words in a subject; thus in the proposition "Toronto, Dublin and Edinburgh are handsome cities," the subject has three

principal words, each of which may have its complement, as, "*Toronto* in Canada, *Dublin* in Ireland, *Edinburgh* in Scotland, are, &c." Such propositions can usually be divided into as many others as there are principal words in the subject and are consequently called compound propositions; those wherein the subject has one principal word with one or more complements, are called "complex," using the word "compound" to signify that which is made up of parts of the *same* kind, and "complex," that which is made up of parts of *different* kinds. The same divisions can be assumed when the attribute has several principal words, as "The man is great, good and happy," may be resolved into three propositions, "The man is great," "The man is good," "The man is happy," and it is consequently compound.

(123.) Another division of propositions, however, far more important to the sense, is based on the nature of the duty performed by each. The mind may form a series of judgments or opinions more or less connected in sense, and therefore requiring to be connected in words. So long as such connection in sense expressed in words goes on, the propositions cannot be separated by any pause or stop that would indicate a termination of the sense, that is, by a *full stop*, nor can they constitute what may be called a sentence, namely, "the words between two full stops." Now such a series of propositions may announce a series of *principal* facts connected in sense, and therefore connected in words, as, "He crossed the lake and returned home"; here are two independent statements, each of which would make sense apart from the other, as, "he crossed the lake" —"he returned home." Such propositions are evidently each independent or principal; a principal proposition therefore is "one which is not introduced to complete the sense of any preceding word," or "which announces the principal fact intended to be stated."

(124.) Again, an opinion or judgment may be formed subordinate to an idea in a previous judgment. When these judgments are expressed in words, the latter proposition will be found to be introduced only to explain or

complete the sense of some previous word, and will consequently be *dependent*. A dependent proposition therefore is, "one which is brought in to complete some word or part in the proposition with which it is connected." In the sentence, "the house which was burned is to be rebuilt," there are two propositions, "the house is to be rebuilt," and "which was burned." The former announces independently the fact which the sentence is intended to express, and is therefore principal; the sole use of the latter is to express or explain some quality of the word "house," of which it is a complement; it is therefore dependent, and coupled to the preceding one by the relative pronoun "which" (79). This is the grammatical analysis; logically considered, these two propositions would form one statement, the dependent proposition forming part of the subject of the principal.

(125.) In the sentence, "I shall go thither, when I return," there are two propositions; the former, "I shall go thither," announces the fact to be stated in the sentence and is principal; the latter is merely introduced to complete the sense of "shall go," by expressing the modification of time; it is consequently dependent; and generally dependent propositions may be known mechanically by the fact of their commencing with a relative pronoun or adverbial conjunction (93).

(126.) As "and," "or," "but," and their compounds or derivatives always couple like things, (92) any of them may be followed by either a dependent or principal proposition according to the nature of the proposition which is before it. "When I have seen him and when I have settled the matter, I will return and tell you;" here we have "and" coupling the two dependent propositions which begin with "when;" and again, "and" couples, "I will return," to, "I will tell you," both of which are principal.

(127.) A sentence (the words between two full stops) must "express complete sense, so as to be uttered independently of any other statements," hence it must contain one principal proposition at least, though it may contain

many more; a sentence therefore consists of propositions —a proposition consists of parts (subject, predicate)—a part of a proposition consists of principal words and complements, and a complement consists of principal word and its complements.

CHAPTER IX.

USES OF THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF PROPOSITIONS—DEPENDENT PROPOSITIONS BEGINNING WITH RELATIVE PRONOUNS—DEPENDENT PROPOSITION BEGINNING WITH ADVERBIAL CONJUNCTIONS—EXAMPLES—THEY DO THE DUTIES OF DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

(128.) As the existence of these different kinds of propositions (Principal, Dependent) is based to some extent at least on some of the operations of the mind, so they are found more or less in every language making any pretence to perfection in its structure, and the duties they perform may conveniently be described by reference to the English.

(129.) The principal proposition, as already stated, expresses independently of any thing else, *the fact to be announced in the sentence.* Dependent propositions perform various duties according to circumstances. They may be said to be of two kinds, one beginning with a relative pronoun, the other with a conjunction. Both are equally dependent, but perform very different duties.

(130.) A proposition beginning with a relative pronoun is always used to complete the sense of the word for which that relative stands,—that is, its antecedent; but such antecedent is always a noun or some word used instead of a noun; hence such a proposition does the duty of an adjective and may be called an "adjectival phrase." If it could be written as one word, it would constitute an actual adjective qualifying the antecedent of the relative pronoun with which it commences, as in the example. "The house *which was burned* is to be rebuilt."

(131.) Other dependent propositions (beginning with adverbial conjunctions) perform various duties. They are usually either adverbial phrases (performing the duty of adverbs,) or they perform the duty of nouns.

(132.) In the former case, each proposition, if written as one word, would be an actual adverb, and the particular modification it expresses, is usually indicated by the adverbial conjunction with which it commences. In each of the following examples the dependent proposition is placed last. The most familiar sentences are selected:—

"I will go, *when you return*"—complement of *time* to, "will go."

"I will leave it, *where I choose*"—complement of *place* to, "will leave."

"I will go out, *if I wish*"—complement of *condition* to, "will go."

"I will tell you, *how I did it*"—complement of *manner* to, "will tell."

"It is done, *as I described*"—complement of *manner* to, "done."

"I will do so, *because I wish it*"—complement of *cause* to, "will do."

"I will do so as soon, *as I can*"—complement of *degree* to the first, "as."

(133.) This last example requires a few words of explanation, and its meaning may be best exhibited by asking questions. The assertion is, "I will do." How? "So." When? "Soon." How soon? "As" (used for "so.") What then explains "as," that is, what tells the degree of time expressed by "as" (or "so") soon? Evidently the proposition, "as I can;" hence this is a complement of *degree* to "as" (used for "so").

(*Examples Resumed.*)

(134.) "I saw him, *as I was walking along the road*"—complement of *time* to "saw."

"I shall stay at home, *since I can't go out*"—complement of the *reason* to, "shall stay."

"I never saw him, *since that day*" (came or passed)—complement of *time* to, "saw."

"I will see you, *ere I go*"—complement of *time* to, "will see."

"I shall not see you, *till Tuesday*" (come or arrive)—complement of *time* to, "shall see."

"I will tell you, *whether I can or not*—*object* of, "will tell."

"I walked so far, *that I was obliged to rest*"—complement of *degree* to, "so." (133).

These examples might be multiplied in proportion as there are various adverbial conjunctions indicative of different modifications.

(135.) In the latter case, (131) when the proposition performs the duty of a noun, it usually begins with the conjunction, "that," and represents a noun in the nominative, or objective case, as exhibited by the following examples:—

"It was intended, *that they should start at once*,"—*subject to the verb "was,"* and therefore equivalent to *a noun in the nominative case.* This construction very frequently occurs. "It," the apparent subject, being a pronoun must stand for some noun (74) and very little consideration will show that, "it," represents the assertion made by the dependent proposition. The word "it," may be omitted without affecting the sense, and the dependent proposition made to occupy the place where the subject is usually found; thus, "*that they should start at once* was intended."

"My intention was, *that they should start at once.*" Here the dependent proposition, *taken as one word* is another name for "intention," and *is a noun in the nominative case after "was,"* because there is a nominative before it (57).

"My intention, *that they should start at once,* was announced in due time." Here the dependent proposition is still another name for the "intention," and if it could be written as one word it would be *a noun in apposition with "intention,"* and therefore in the same case.

"I commanded, *that they should start at once.*" Here the dependent proposition expresses the thing commanded,

and if as before, written as one word, *would be a noun in the objective case* governed by the transitive verb "commanded."

(136.) "After *that they arrived*, they commenced business;" or, to give it the natural order, "They commenced business after *that they arrived*." In the phrases "after that," "before that," the word "that" is now frequently omitted, but is not the less understood, and in such instances "before" or "after" is looked upon as the adverbial conjunction, and sometimes even as an adverb; but, in reality, it is a preposition, and, as in the above example, *the dependent proposition is its object:* that is, it expresses the fact which is the object of the relation indicated by the preposition, and, if written as one word, would be a *noun in the objective case*, governed by "after." The phrase "after that" consists of two words, and is therefore to be examined separately. When we use "after," we must mean, "after some thing." Ask the question, "after what?" in the above example, and the answer will obviously be, after the fact or circumstance represented in the dependent proposition. (Compare "postquam," in Latin).

(137.) In the examples given above, dependent propositions are coupled to principal propositions and complete words therein, but it is evident that they may as readily be coupled to other dependent propositions; in short, so long as words are signs of ideas, wherever a conjunction is used, two words or phrases, or two propositions must be coupled together; this is the case even though one of the phrases or propositions so coupled may not be expressed. This is exemplified in the following sentence, "He looked *as* if he were about to die." Here there are evidently two propositions at least, for two verbs are expressed. The second of them, "if he were about to die," is coupled by "if" to some preceding proposition; if it be coupled to "he looked," the connection will be "He looked if he were about to die," and the dependent proposition beginning with "if" will be a complement of condition to "looked," that is, it will express the condition on which he looked.

Such, however, evidently is not the case; the word "as" has obviously some reference to manner, and begins a phrase or proposition telling how he looked; thus the whole sentence is, "he looked, *as he would look*, if he were about to die;" "as he would look," describes how he looked that is, it is a complement of manner to "looked;" and the last proposition tells on what condition he would look so; that is, it is a complement of condition to "would look." It may be added that this explanation is by no means arbitrary, depending on the assertion of any grammarian, but is unavoidable, being based on the actual nature of the words used. Many more examples will be given under the head of "Examples for Analysis."

(138.) Besides combinations of words expressive of judgments of the mind, opinions may be expressed by the words "yes" and "no;" these words therefore may in themselves be considered as propositions, but they are so only by reference to some previous statement, and are consequently general in their nature, expressing a mental concurrence with, or denial of, some previously expressed opinion, just as a pronoun may be made to represent some previously mentioned noun. "Yes" and "no," (yea and nay) must be considered as affirmative and negative adverbs.

CHAPTER X.

COMPLEMENTS OR PHRASES THAT MAY BE ATTACHED TO THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF SPEECH—TO THE NOUN—THE ADJECTIVE—THE VERB—SUMMATION.

(139.) Besides the combinations of words called propositions, as already described, other combinations form complements (*words added to others to complete the sense*), but not containing verbs, are not propositions; they may be called "imperfect phrases." Complements may also consist of single words, and in all cases their nature will depend on the nature and connection of the ideas represented by the words to which they may be attached. Comple-

ments in language are attached to names of things, names of actions, and names of qualities; and a careful consideration of the nature of each kind of word will readily teach us the kind of complement that may be attached to it.

(140.) To begin with nouns. As nouns are the names of things, and as all things possess qualities, so in language nouns may have attached to them as complements, *words or phrases expressive of quality.* These words are called in grammar, Adjectives; and phrases expressive of quality may consequently be called "adjectival phrases;" under the latter head is included any single word, which, though not an adjective in its nature, is used in such a connection with a noun as to indicate the possession of some quality by that noun, or give it a special signification.

(141.) The principal adjectival phrases are:

A noun and preposition, as "A man *of honor*."

A noun in the possessive case, as "*Father's* house."

A noun in apposition, as "Milton, *the poet*."

A proposition beginning with a relative pronoun, as "The man *who was killed yesterday*."

In the above examples the sense of the words "man," "house," and "Milton," is completed by the phrases attached, which consequently, to some extent, do the duty of adjectives, and may be called adjectival phrases.

(142.) Complements of place, manner, and time, are sometimes apparently attached to nouns, but it is only apparently; they really complete some word understood, expressive of action or existence, to which only, the modifications of place, manner, and time can apply. In the example "Toronto, *on the shores of Lake Ontario*," the latter phrase is a complement of place, and is consequently adverbial; it seems to belong to "Toronto," but in reality completes some word understood, as "situated," or "being." So in the phrase, "Toronto, *at that time*, the capital," the complement of time seems to belong to "Toronto," but it is in reality a complement of time to "being," understood.

(143.) In the example "These persons, *namely*, John,

Thomas, and William," here the adverb "namely" seems to be a complement of "persons," but is not so; "namely" signifies *by name*, and the phrase is, "These persons, *being by name*," &c., where "by name" evidently completes the sense of "being."

(144.) Adjectives express quality, and as things may possess qualities in very different degrees, so adjectives admit of complements expressive of the degree in which the quality is possessed. The nature of the quality expressed by the adjective may also be such as unavoidably to suggest some other consideration, without which it cannot exist. Words expressing these modifications of the adjectives are adverbs, and, as a phrase may be often used instead of a single word, adverbial phrases may be used for adverbs: hence adjectives may have adverbs or adverbial phrases attached to them as complements.

(145.) The most common form of an adverbial phrase is, "An adjective and noun governed by a preposition;" the adjective may be sometimes omitted. Thus the adverb, "Here," may be expressed, "In this place;" "There," "In that place;" "Happily," "In a happy manner:" "Very," "In a great degree," &c. Some adverbial modifications may be expressed by a dependent proposition beginning with an adverbial conjunction, as those of time, place, cause, &c. (132) of which examples have been already given. Most of these modifications belong to words expressive of action, but there is one adverbial phrase, a dependent proposition beginning with the adverbial conjunction "than" always found after a comparative degree and which may be called the "complement of comparison." After all adjectives also indicating comparison, as, *same*, *such*, similar, &c., there must be a complement expressing the other side of the comparison, as, "It is not *such as I thought*."

(146). If we attach the word, "excellent," to a noun, we may modify it by a complement of degree expressed by an adverb, as "*very* excellent;" or by an adverbial phrase, as, "excellent *to a great degree*;" or, if the adjective indicate a comparison between two things as to the

degree in which the quality is possessed by each, as the word, "larger," for instance, we use a dependent preposition beginning with, "than," as "larger *than that is.*" Or the adjective may be such as to suggest unavoidably some other consideration which will be expressed by an adverbial phrase, as "fond *of money*," "fit *for use.*" (144.)

(147). Thus as the adjective expresses quality it may be completed, in sense, by an adverb or adverbial phrase, the forms of which latter are, an adjective and noun governed by a preposition, and a dependent preposition beginning with an adverbial conjunction.

(148). It may be here remarked that, as adverbs have more or less reference to the expression of quality or degree of quality, they may be modified in the same way as adjectives. Thus in the phrase, "valued very highly," the adverb "highly" is modified by "very."

(149). As the verb expresses action or being, and includes also the idea of quality, the sense of it may be completed by any word or phrase expressive of the various modifications with reference to which the mind considers the idea of action or being. These modifications are time, place, cause, manner, means, instrument, condition, &c.; and the words expressing these are adverbs, instead of which adverbial phrases (as described above) are often used, indeed some of these modifications can be expressed by such phrases only; hence verbs may have complements attached to them consisting of adverbs or adverbial phrases. Many verbs also express transitive action; (35) in such instances the verbs must be followed by a noun in the objective case. The following sentences afford examples of most of the different complements that may be attached to verbs,

"He shot *him, without delay, with a pistol, when he met him.*"

"Him" object—"without delay," adverbial phrase, complement of time—"with a pistol," adverbial phrase, the instrument—"when he met him," adverbial phrase (dependent proposition) complement of time—

"He went out *early, that he might return before night, if possible.*"

"Early"—adverb, complement of time—"that he might return before night" adverbial phrase (dependent proposition) complement of purpose—"if possible," adverbial phrase (dependent proposition) complement of condition.

"He worked *hard for him in the garden, with his spade for many hours, though he was suffering from illness.*"

Here the verb "worked" has many complements; the first, "hard," an adverb, all the rest adverbial phrases—"hard," the manner—"for him," the direction—"in the garden," the place—"with his spade," the instrument—"for many hours," the time—"though he was suffering from illness," an adversative complement indicating opposition.

(150). The above examples are sufficient to exhibit the nature of the different complements that may be attached to verbs, and as verbal words, that is participles, partake of the nature of verbs and adjectives, or of verbs and nouns, (103) so they may be completed by most of the complements which are found after these three parts of speech. Thus the verbal adjective, "striking," coming from a transitive verb, may take an object, "him," after it; and an adverb, "severely;" and an adverbial phrase, "with a stick;" and another phrase a dependent proposition, "that he might be forced to yield." To the word, "striking," used as a verbal noun, the same complements might be attached, thus: "By striking him severely with a stick, that he might be forced to yield."—In both these examples "striking," is a participle; in the former it may be made a verbal adjective by joining it to a noun, as, "the man striking, &c.;" in the latter, it is a verbal noun governed by the preposition "by."

(151). To sum up the foregoing observations, with reference to general grammar:—

Language is the means of expressing our sentiments and feelings and consists of words.

Words are articulate sounds used as signs of our ideas or of the connections and relations existing in the mind between them.

The different kinds of ideas and connections or relations give rise to the following different kinds of words which are found to be sufficient to express them, and are observed to exist more or less in every language in proportion to its progress towards perfection. The kinds of words are: the names of things (Nouns and Pronouns)—the names of actions (Verbs)—the names of qualities and degrees of quality (Adjectives, Articles, and Adverbs)—the names of relations and connections (Prepositions and Conjunctions)—and unconnected words indicative of sudden emotion (Interjections).

Of these different kinds of words the principal are, Nouns, Verbs and Adjectives; and all words in combination form Propositions (including interrogations) and clauses or phrases used to complete the sense of other words, and hence called Complements, and capable of being attached to the principal parts of speech, as represented in the following table:

NOUN.	VERB.	ADJECTIVE.
(May be completed by)	(May be completed by)	(May be completed by)
An Adjective; or	An Adverb; or	An Adverb; or
Adjectival phrase.	Adverbial phrase.	Adverbial phrase.
An Adjectival phrase may consist of,	An Adverbial phrase may consist of,	For Adverbial phrase, see Verb.
A Noun in Apposition.	A Noun and Adjective governed by a Preposition.	
A Noun in the Possessive case.	A Dependent Proposition beginning with an Adverbial Conjunction.	
A Noun and Preposition.		
A Proposition beginning with a relative Pronoun.		

(152.) The above general view will be found to include the principal forms in which we combine words to express opinions, and as these combinations originate in certain mental processes which go on in the human mind in a

greater or less degree according to the intellectual progress it has made, similar combinations or some analogous forms will be found to exist to a corresponding extent in all languages.

CHAPTER XI.

ANALYSIS—THE PARTS OF A PROLONGED DISCOURSE—ANALYSIS OF THE SUBJECT—OF THE PREDICATE—ABSOLUTE AND INFINITIVE PHRASES—MODE OF FINDING OUT THE PROPOSITIONS OF A SENTENCE—PARSING—RELATION, SINGLE AND DOUBLE—EXAMPLE OF ANALYSIS—RELATIONS OR CONNECTIONS OF WORDS FOUND OUT BY ANALYSIS—EXAMPLES—SO—EVEN—PARTICIPLE AFTER TO HAVE—FOR—BEFORE—AFTER—VERBS OF ASKING AND TEACHING.

(153.) A very important process in examining the mode of combining words in any dialect, is Analysis, including what is technically called by grammarians, Parsing, which is in fact effected by means of analysis.

Analysis is that process by which any thing is separated into the parts of which it consists, so that we are thereby enabled to ascertain the exact nature of those parts and the mode in which they are combined to form the whole under consideration. Independently of the useful habit of philosophical investigation, a most important branch of mental training, we are thus enabled to obtain a more thorough knowledge of the thing in question, and arrive at a correct conception of the great general principles by which it is governed, so as to have a better guide for our practical rules than mere usage, fashion, or popular acceptation.

(154.) A prolonged discourse will be found to consist of a series of sentences; each of these will consist of a proposition or propositions; and each of these, of subject, copula and attribute, or of subject and predicate (110); each of these parts will consist (if containing more words than one) of principal words and complements (116), and each com-

plement, of principal word and its complements, until we come to single words. These again may be analyzed by being divided into syllables, and each syllable, into simple sounds: this last branch of analysis will not be considered here, as it belongs to a different department of grammar.

(155.) In finding out the above parts, certain mechanical means may be used. As every proposition makes an assertion, the essential element of its existence must be that part of speech which makes an assertion, that is, a verb; hence in order to analyze a sentence we look first for the verbs, and for every verb there must be a proposition. But this is not always a certain guide, inasmuch as, there may be verbs not expressed in the sentence; but in that case, the fact will be indicated by the evident sense or meaning of the passage and also by the presence of some additional coupling word (conjunction or relative pronoun). Before each verb there must be a subject, and the mechanical means of finding it out is by asking the question "who" or "what" before the verb; all the words which together form the answer to this question will constitute the complete subject, called in grammar the "logical subject." If the verb be any part of the verb "to be," ask the question "what" *after* it; all the words together answering this question will form the logical attribute, and these with the verb will form the predicate.

The words so linked together will constitute a proposition, and the parts of the propositions connected with the other verbs occurring in the sentence may be distinguished in a similar manner.

(156.) If the subject consists of more words than one, it is analyzed by finding out the principal word, called the "grammatical subject;" this is done by asking the usual question for the subject and ascertaining what one word answers it *by itself;* this will be the grammatical subject. Its complements are ascertained by asking after the principal word of the subject, such questions as are suggested by its nature (116) each word or combination of words in the proposition answering a separate question, or the same

question repeated, will constitute a separate complement; each complement, if it consist of more words than one, will have a principal word, and this word is found out by ascertaining which of the words constituting the complement makes sense by itself with that to which the whole complement belongs; this will be the principal word (116) and this process is carried on till we arrive at a single word.

(157.) The predicate is examined in a similar manner; the verb being invariably the principal word or grammatical predicate (in propositions where the verb "to be" is not used,) because it always expresses the quality asserted of the subject. When the verb "to be" occurs the attribute may be analyzed separately, the copula being considered an independent part of the proposition; in either case the complements will be found out by asking the various questions which may be put in connection with the principal word: as, after a verb or any word indicating action, "how," "when," "where" "why," &c. In many cases complements will be found to which no precise questions can be applied; in such instances a careful examination of the proposition will enable us to ascertain with certainty, to what principal word each complement belongs, and on our doing so correctly will depend the meaning we attach to the proposition; in these cases we are aided in good composition by the position of the complements and the punctuation, and mistakes in these points, the results of ignorance, or careless composition, often materially alter the meaning of a proposition. Having gone through the above process with each verb in the sentence, if there be any words omitted, that is, not attached in the course of the process to any proposition, by reading over the sentence carefully, we may readily discover to which propositions they belong.

(158.) There are two kinds of phrases sufficiently peculiar to merit separate notice; they are the Nominative absolute, and the Infinitive phrase. The peculiarity of the former is, that though it is grammatically independent, it is in reality a complement (57) usually indicating the cause, time, or condition of an action, and is analysed by

finding the principal word and its complements. This principal word is always a noun and its immediate complement is a participle (often understood). As the latter is a verbal adjective, it may have attached to it the complements already noticed as belonging to these parts of speech.

(159.) A complete infinitive phrase consists of parts corresponding to those of a proposition, into which, indeed, it can generally be changed; it has the copula, a word before it doing the duty of subject, and another corresponding to the attribute after it; or it has parts corresponding to the subject and predicate of a proposition. It is analyzed, by finding out the verb, then asking the question "whom" or "what" *before* it for the subject, and questions for the complements as before.

(160.) Observe, that in all cases, when the subject is found out, the whole of the remainder constitutes the predicate and is merely read off, beginning with the verb as the principal word. The conjunctions do not properly belong to either proposition, being merely connecting words between two; but the adverbial conjunctions, in their adverbial capacity belong to the predicate, and, if included at all, must be dealt with accordingly.

(161.) In many instances, various circumstances render it convenient to mingle up the propositions of a sentence with each other, portions of the same proposition occurring before and after the words of another, as, "The man of whom we were speaking, is dead." Here the principal proposition is, "The man is dead," and the dependent one is thrust in between its parts. In such cases the easiest method is, to make out the dependent propositions first, as they are easily distinguishable by beginning with a relative pronoun or conjunction, the omitted words will then readily arrange themselves into propositions according to the sense. These complications among the propositions of a sentence are often very perplexing, particularly in poetry, and with some writers are occasionally such as to render the meaning of the passage very obscure. The connection between "parsing" and "analysis" will be explained hereafter.

The method of analyzing sentences will be illustrated by a series of examples, but it is first necessary to explain the nature of "parsing," which is in itself an analytical process. (161). The word "parse" is probably derived from the Latin "pars," "a part," and hence it signifies to consider and detail separately the grammatical nature, characteristics, and properties of any word when used to form part of a phrase or assertion.

Some of the grammatical properties of words,—a noun for example,—exist in it independently of its connection with other words, while others exist only in right of such connection; consequently the process of parsing exercised to its fullest extent applies only to words in grammatical connection with others; indeed the act of distinguishing these connections and relations is the most essential part of the process, and when it is omitted parsing can scarcely be said to be carried out. In general most words belong to some class or other without regard to the connection in which they may be used; in nouns the number and gender may be told by reference to the meaning or termination, and sometimes the case also by the latter, that is where the termination is considered the essential element in right of which case exists; but properly, as that termination is used only to indicate the relation of the noun with some other word, without such relation case can scarcely be said to have any existence. In verbs, the tense, mood and sometimes the person and number may be distinguished by the form, without reference to the connection with other words; but in general parsing is properly understood as applied only to words forming parts of propositions.

(162.) It is by means of analysis that we are enabled to ascertain the connection of one word with another, as is evident from the previous explanation, and hence without some analysis more or less, we can not complete the process of parsing any word, that is we can not tell the government or relation, the most important element in parsing. Every word in a proposition has some relation with some other word, as for instance, the adjective with its noun, the verb with its subject, the adverb with the

word it modifies, &c. Any word so related to *one* other word is said to be a word of *single relation*, as, "A *good* man is respected," here the relation of "good" is "good man," that is "good" is related to "man;" to give the relation of man; we say "man is," that is, "man" is the subject of "is"; and so on; to indicate any one of these relations it is necessary to read two words only. But some words are equally related to *two* others; words so related are said to have a double relation, and such relations can only be expressed by three words at least. Thus prepositions are always words of double relation, as, "fond *of* money; so are conjunctions; and occasionally nouns are used so as to have a double relation; thus in the sentence, "I ordered them to stop," the word "them" is partly object of "ordered," and partly doing the duty of subject before "to stop."

(163.) These relations are distinguished by means of analysis, as in the following example;—"In all cases, "without reference to what may be said by others, we "ought to act prudently rather than rashly";—"In" being a preposition is a word of double relation, and can not be parsed without ascertaining the word *before* it in sense as well as the word *after* it, that is, the word which it completes, and the word that completes it. By analysis we ascertain that the sense is "to act in all cases" hence the relation is expressed by the three words "act in cases" and we are enabled to parse the word accordingly, in other words, "in" shows the relation between "to act" and "cases."

(164.) To parse any word fully we have to tell its relation, the class of words to which it belongs, all the different grammatical properties that belong to it, and its government, the last being known by the relation. To parse a noun (or pronoun) we must tell its relation, kind, case, gender, number, person, and government;—to parse a verb, its relation, kind, mood, tense, person, number and subject;—an adjective (or article) its relation, and the noun it refers to;—an adverb, its relation and the word it modifies;—a conjunction, its relation, and the words or

phrases it couples;—a preposition, its relation, that is, the words between which it shows the grammatical connection. An interjection has strictly speaking no grammatical relation by which it is governed, but it usually has some connection in sense with a proposition before or after, indicating the cause of the emotion of which the interjection is the expression.

(165.) The example given below indicates the method commonly adopted in ascertaining the propositions of a sentence and the different parts of a proposition by means of questions, but these questions are chiefly useful for the subject and attribute, and there are many complements to which no precise question can be applied, hence such complement is usually read off as it is distinguished, and this is done by a knowledge of the general structure of sentences and a little study of the proposition, aided by position and punctuation.

"Another bill being brought into the house of commons "for rendering the treaty of commerce effectual, such a "number of petitions were delivered against it, and so "many solid arguments advanced by the merchants who "were examined on the subject, that even a great number "of tory members were convinced of the bad consequence "it would produce to trade, and voted against the ministry "on this occasion."

In this sentence the first proposition is, "Another bill "being brought into the house of commons for rendering "the treaty of commerce effectual, such a number of pe-"titions were delivered against it;"

2nd Proposition—"and so many solid arguments "(were) advanced by the merchants."

3rd Proposition—"who were examined on the sub-"ject."

4th Proposition—"that even a great number of tory "members were convinced of the bad consequence."

5th Proposition—"(which) it would produce to trade."

6th Proposition—"and (they) voted against the minis-"try on this occasion."

The first proposition is principal—"were" is the verb

—Who or what "were"? "Such a number of petitions," this is the subject. The remainder is the predicate. In the subject "number" is the principal word, because it answers the question "what were" by itself (116), completed by "such," that is one complement; "a" that is another; "of petitions," that is another; in this last complement, "of" is the principal word completed by "petitions."

In the predicate "were delivered" taken as one word is the principal, completed by "against it:" in this complement "against" is the principal word completed by "it." The clause beginning with "another" and ending at "effectual" is an absolute phrase, completing "were delivered" in sense, but having no grammatical dependence on it; (57) In this clause, "bill" is the principal word, completed by "another" that is one complement: "being brought into the house of commons for rendering the treaty of commerce effectual," that is another complement; in this latter, "being" and "brought" if taken separately are both principal words, (or if taken as one word "being brought" is principal) "brought" is completed by "into the house of commons," that is one complement; "for rendering the treaty of commerce effectual," that is another; in the former, "into" is the principal word, completed by "the house of commons"; in this, "house" is the principal word, completed by "the," and "of commons;" in this, "of" is the principal word, completed by "commons."—In the complement beginning with "for," "for" is the principal word, completed by "rendering the treaty of commerce effectual;" in this complement, "rendering" is the principal word, completed by "the treaty of commerce effectual;" in this "treaty" is the principal word, completed by "the," "of commerce," and "effectual;" in "of commerce," "of" is the principal word, completed by "commerce."

Strictly speaking, in the complement, "rendering the treaty of commerce effectual," "to be" is understood, and the words "the treaty of commerce to be effectual" constitute an infinitive phrase of which "to be" is the

verb "whom to be"? "the treaty of commerce"; "to be what"? "effectual."

The 2nd proposition is principal, coupled by "and" understood to the first; here "were advanced" like "were delivered," as exemplified in the first proposition may be taken as one word, but as they are really two words, they should be so considered in analysis. "Were" is the verb; (I omit the questions) "so many solid arguments," is the subject; "advanced by the merchants" is the attribute; in the subject "arguments" is the principal word, completed by "so many," one complement, "solid" another; in the former, "many" is the principal word, completed by "so." In the attribute, "advanced," is the principal word, completed by "by the merchants"; in this, "by" is the principal word, completed by, "the merchants"; in this, "merchants" is principal, completed by "the." (See copula 111.)

The 3rd proposition is dependent (beginning with the relative pronoun "who") (125) and completes "merchants." The subject is, "who"; the verb is "were" the attribute "examined on the subject"; in this attribute, "examined," is the principal word, completed by, "on the subject"; in this complement, "on" is the principal word, completed by "the subject"; in this, "subject" is the principal word, completed by "the."

The 4th proposition is dependent, beginning with the conjunction "that" and completes, "such," and, "so" in the first and second propositions—"Were" is the verb; "even a great number of tory members" is the subject; "convinced of the bad consequence" is the attribute. In the subject, "number" is the principal word, completed by "a," one complement, "even great," another, and "of tory members," another. In the complement "even great," "great" is the principal word, completed by "even"; "of tory members," "of," is the principal word, completed by "tory members"; in this, "members" is the principal word, completed by "tory." In the attribute "convinced" is the principal word, completed by, "of the bad consequence"; in this, "of," is the principal

word, completed by, "the bad consequence"; in this, "consequence" is the principal word, completed by, "the," and, "bad." These propositions may be conveniently divided into *subject* and *predicate*, by joining the verb "were" with the attribute.

The 5th proposition is dependent beginning with the relative pronoun "which" understood and completes "consequence." "It," is the subject; "would produce which to trade," is the predicate. In this predicate "would produce" is the principal word, completed by "which," that is one complement (object) and "to trade," that is another; in this, "to" is the principal word completed by "trade"; "would produce" taken *separately* will be explained hereafter.

The 6th proposition is dependent, coupled by "and" to the 4th, therefore doing the same duty and beginning with "that" understood. "They" is the subject; "voted against the ministry on this occasion," is the predicate. In this predicate, "voted," is the principal word, completed by, "against the ministry," that is one complement; "on this occasion," is another. In the former, "against" is the principal word, completed by, "the ministry"; in this, "ministry" is the principal word, completed by, "the"; in the complement, "on this occasion," "on" is the principal word, completed by "this occasion"; in this, "occasion," is the principal word, completed by "this."

(166.) It may be observed of the words "such" and "so," see 1st and 2nd propositions, that they have in themselves no specific meaning, merely indicating some quality or degree of quality; hence they require some clause to be added to explain them: this explanation in the example under consideration is given by the 4th proposition, and if this were omitted, the word "such" in the phrase "such a number" would be altogether indefinite, as would also be the word, "so," in the phrase "so many." (145).

(167.) The above is an example of a sort of formula for analyzing sentences, whereof I shall give below a few other

specimens varying in character from the foregoing. It is only by means of analysis that we can distinguish the relations of words; hence it is necessary for correct parsing, and although the whole of the above process may not be gone through, the fact of one word being connected with, or separated from another, must be ascertained; the doing of this is a part of the process of analyzing.

(168.) By the analysis of the above example, we learn, that the first word "another," is a complement of "bill," its relation is "bill another," it is therefore an adjective qualifying "bill." This word and "other" are usually, but most improperly, called pronouns; this probably arises from the fact of their being so frequently used without a noun, but as they nevertheless always refer to a noun expressed or understood and do not *stand instead of* one, they possess the essential quality that distinguishes the adjective and should be parsed accordingly.

"Bill" has properly no grammatical relation with any other word, (57) it is therefore an absolute case, called in English the Nominative, it is third person, singular number, and neuter gender.

"Being brought," taken as one word is a complement of "bill," its relation is, "bill being brought," and it is therefore an adjective, but it is also a form of some part of the verb to bring, and is therefore verbal; it is consequently a verbal adjective or participle (103) qualifying "bill"; but being verbal it has some of the grammatical properties of the verb, namely tense and voice; (108) as the noun to which it is attached is enduring the action of bringing, it is passive (108), and as "being" is the present participle of "to be," "being brought" refers to the present time, so that, "being brought," taken as one word should be parsed as the present passive participle (verbal adjective) of the verb, "to be," qualifying or referring to "bill." But these words are separate and should be accounted for separately; "being," is a verbal adjective, (present participle) of, "to be," qualifying "bill"; and "brought" is the past passive participle of the verb "to bring," qualifying "bill" (108). Each of them evidently has the relation of an adjective to "bill."

The relation of "into" is, "brought into house"; it is a preposition showing the relation (or grammatical connection) between "brought" and "house." Observe in this and similar examples the word "brought" (or other similar word) evidently causes the phrase "into the house" to be used, and "into" shows the relation between the act of bringing indicated by "brought" and the place (house) to which the thing was brought.

We learn by the analysis (165) that the phrase beginning with "for" completes "brought;" hence the relation is "brought for rendering," and "for" is a preposition showing the relation (or grammatical connection) between "brought" and "rendering."

From the analysis, the relation of "rendering" is, "for rendering"; therefore from the nature of a preposition (87) "rendering," is a noun; but it is also a form of the verb "to render" and is therefore a participle or verbal noun, in the objective case governed by "for." Observe, this may be tested in the following way; if we use the word "for," we must from its nature, mean "for something or other"; ask the question, "for what"? and the answer can only be "rendering."

According to the analysis, the relation of "treaty" is, "rendering treaty," and "treaty" answers the question "rendering what"? it is therefore apparently the object of "rendering," and the complete parsing of it is, a common noun, objective case, third person, singular number, neuter gender, part of the object of "rendering," which, being verbal, takes after it the same case as the transitive verb, "to render." Properly, the verb "to be," is understood, (see analysis) and "treaty" is a word of double relation, being partly the object of "rendering," and partly doing the duty of a subject before "to be;" this should be expressed in the parsing thus, objective case governed by, "rendering," and before "to be." In the sentence, "I thought him to be honest," it is nonsense to call, "him," the object of the verb "thought," as the nature of the action expressed by "thought" would not admit of such an object. The object of the action expressed by

"thought," is, "to be," "the being," or the fact of being; and "him," is doing the same duty before, "to be," as a subject does before its verb, but is in the objective case because the whole phrase, "him to be honest," is governed by "thought." If the construction were altered, "him" would become the nominative case, as, "I thought *that he was honest.*"

"Effectual"; relation, "treaty effectual"; an adjective qualifying "treaty." "Such"; relation, "number such"; an adjective qualifying "number." This word is very frequently called a pronoun by those who neglect the definitions, probably because it is often used without a noun; but it is always joined to a noun expressed or understood.

"Were delivered"; relation "number were delivered"; taken as one word, is a passive verb imperfect tense, indicative mood, third person, plural number, having "number" for its subject. It is thus parsed as a passive tense of the verb, "to deliver"; but there is properly no form for the passive voice in English. (40) "Were" and "delivered" are two words, are always written and uttered so, and may be separated in writing by several other words; they should of course be parsed separately, "were" being the imperfect tense of the verb "to be," and "delivered" the past passive participle (verbal adjective) of the verb to deliver, qualifying "number."

It may be observed that "were" is plural in form, while its nominative case "number" is singular in form, contrary to the rule requiring the verb to be of the same number as the subject, which merely means that a singular noun should be followed by a verb in the form which marks the singular, and the reverse. "Number" though singular in form is plural in meaning, as is evidenced by the plural complement of "petitions," and thus the verb is made to agree in form with the meaning rather than the form of its subject. Such nouns are called *nouns of multitude*, and even when singular often have a plural verb attached to them.

The relation of "and," is the two propositions which it

couples; that is, the conjunction is equally related to each of the two propositions; it is therefore parsed, a conjunction coupling the two propositions.

The relation of "so," is "many so"; that is, "so," is an adverb modifying "many." (In reading a relation, read the principal word first.)

"Were advanced," "were examined," may be parsed like "were delivered," either as passive verbs, or more properly, each word separately as shown above.

The relation of "who," is "who were," it is a relative pronoun, in the nominative case, third person, plural number, and masculine gender, subject to the verb "were." "Who," is properly considered a pronoun, because it always *stands for* a noun and is never joined to a noun. It does not change its form to mark either gender, number or person; but these grammatical properties are attributed to it in accordance with the nature of the noun it represents, and because the verb attached to it may vary its form accordingly as the pronoun represents a different number or person; as, "*I* who *go*"; "*Thou* who *goest*," &c. "Who," in the example before us, couples the second and third propositions. (79)

"That," relation, the two propositions; a conjunction coupling the two propositions, the verb of the one before it being, "were," (advanced) and of that after it "were" (convinced.)

"Even," relation "great even," the sense being "a number even great"; an adverb modifying "great." This is often one of the most difficult words to parse, as in the following sentence and others similar, namely, "Even William returned" It will be explained in the examples given under the head of "Peculiar constructions."

"Would produce," relation, "it would produce." Taken as one word it forms the imperfect tense, potential mood of the verb "to produce" (Appendix) active transitive, third person, singular number, having "it," for its subject. "Would" and "produce" are however two words and should be parsed separately. Thus "would" is an active-transitive defective verb, imperfect tense, indicative mood; it is the irregular imperfect tense of the

verb "to will." "Produce" is an infinitive mood governed by, "would"; but as already stated (43) what is commonly called the infinitive mood is really a verbal noun; it is in this instance the object of the transitive verb "would." All the verbs used in forming the moods and tenses of other verbs, (except "to be") that is, all the auxiliary verbs, are transitive, taking as their objects verbal nouns, usually in the form of an infinitive mood, but after, "to have," the verbal noun has the form of the past participle;—as, "I may *go*," "I can *go*," "I shall *go*," "I have *gone*," &c.

The Latin "possum" "I can," or "am able" is an example of a similar usage, being followed by a verb in the infinitive mood (verbal noun) which is really its object.

"Voted," relation, "they voted"; an active intransitive verb, imperfect tense, indicative mood, third person, plural number, having "they" for its subject. This is an example of what is commonly called in English, a *regular* verb; that epithet being applied to all verbs that make the imperfect tense end in "ed."

(169.) "They are not such as I had hoped for." In order to analyze this example, the nature of the word "such" must be considered. It cannot be used without indicating a comparison between the noun to which it refers, and some other to which that one is compared; thus we say, "This house is not such as I intended," meaning evidently, "This house is not such as that one is, which I intended." In the example "They are not such as I had hoped for," the full sentence is, "They are not such as those are which I had hoped for." First proposition is "They are not such"; this is the principal; subject, they; predicate, the remainder. The second is, "as those are"; subject, "those"; predicate the remainder, this is a dependent proposition completing "such." The next proposition is "which I had hoped for," dependent, completing, "those," the antecedent of "which"; a better order would be "for which I had hoped"; subject "I"; predicate "had hoped for which." The analysis need not be carried further, the process of finding out the comple-

ments being sufficiently indicated in the example first given.

(170.) In the parsing, (last example) "they," (and all other pronouns) is parsed like a noun, its relation here being "They are"—a personal pronoun, nominative case, third person, plural number, subject to the verb "are.'

"Such," relation, "they such," an adjective qualifying, "they." It may here be remarked that adjectives may be divided into a considerable number of classes according to the various qualities they represent; all these divisions are here omitted as being useless, having no real effect on the nature and condition of the adjective, and being exceedingly troublesome both to learner and teacher.

"As" relation, the two propositions; it is an adverbial conjunction coupling the two propositions, that before it being, "They are not such," and that after it, "as those are." The word, "as," so used is much disputed, many persons calling it a relative pronoun meaning "which," and the example would then read, "They are not such which I had hoped for;" but here one side of the comparison is omitted, and moreover in very many instances we actually use the full sentence as I have explained it. The following very common modes of speech will illustrate this. —A person alluding to a house he has already described, says, "A house, such as that is, would not suit me," meaning of course the house he has already described; or he may say, "A house such as I have described would not suit me," where it can not be doubted by a comparison of the two constructions, that the latter fully expressed is "A house such as that is which I have described would not suit me"; the propositions being "Such a house would not suit me"; as that house is "which I have described"; the last two propositions being dependent, one of them completing, "such," and the other completing "house."

"Which"; relation, "for which," relative pronoun, objective case, third person, plural number, governed by "for."

"Had hoped"; relation, "I had hoped"; active intransitive verb, pluperfect tense, indicative mood, first person,

singular number, having I for its subject. As already alluded to "had" and "hoped" are separate words and should be considered separately. Two actions are indicated, namely the action of having and the action of hoping; the former, "had," is the imperfect tense of the transitive verb "to have," its object is the action of hoping, expressed by "hoped," which is consequently a verbal noun in the objective case governed by, "had." (106.)

(171.) The following lines from Milton's "Paradise Lost" offer a good example for analysis, —

"Powers and Dominions, Deities of Heaven!
"For since no deep within her gulf can hold
"Immortal vigour, though oppressed and fallen,
"I give not Heaven for lost. From this descent
"Celestial virtues rising, will appear
"More glorious and more dread than from no fall,
"And trust themselves to fear no second fate."

Omitting for the present the first line which is merely an address, the propositions are as follow:

1st. "For I give not heaven for lost."

2nd. "Since no deep within her gulf can hold immortal vigour."

3rd. "Though (it be) oppressed and fallen."

1st. In second sentence "From this descent, celestial virtues rising, will appear more glorious and more dread."

2nd. "Than (they would appear) from no fall."

3rd. "And (they will) trust themselves to fear no second fate."

In analyzing the first sentence, terminating with the full stop after "lost" a serious difficulty at once presents itself, namely, there is no previous statement for which the first proposition beginning with "for," is a reason; in other words there is no principal proposition in the sentence, which is absolutely necessary to admit of the use of a full stop. The principal proposition must then be understood. A slight examination of the passage shows us that the first proposition, beginning "for" gives the reason of his still using the epithet, "Deities of Heaven," and the full sentence beginning after the address, obviously is, "I still call

you Deities of Heaven, for I give not Heaven for lost, &c."

First proposition is dependent, complement of "call," or some such word understood, telling the cause or reason of the verb "call"—The subject is "I;" predicate, "give not Heaven for lost."

Second proposition is dependent, complement of the reason to "give." The subject is, "no deep," predicate "can hold within her gulf immortal vigour."

Third proposition is dependent; an adversative complement to "can hold." The subject is, "it," understood, standing for "immortal vigour;" predicate the remainder.

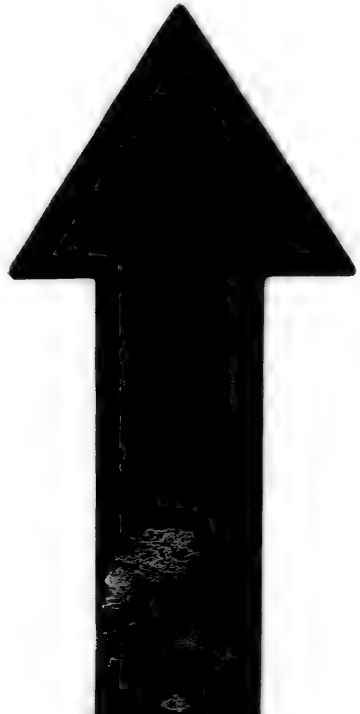
First proposition in the second sentence is principal—the subject is, "Celestial virtues rising from this descent"; predicate "will appear [illegible] glorious and more dread."

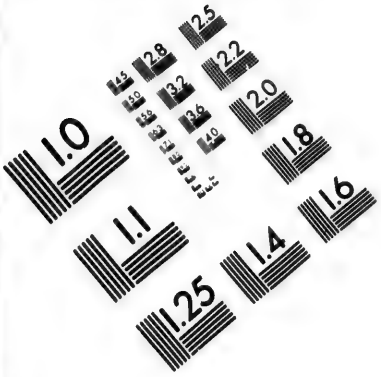
Second proposition is dependent, complement of comparison to, "more." The subject is, "they"; predicate, "would appear from no fall."

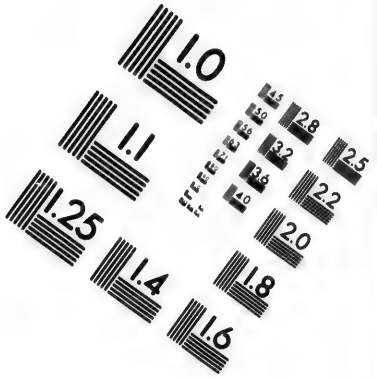
Third proposition is principal, coupled by "and" to the first of the second sentence. The subject is, "they"; predicate "will trust themselves to fear no second fate." In consequence of the word "and" this last proposition may be made part of the first, making, "will," the verb, and, "appear" and "trust," its objects; it would run thus, "From this descent, celestial virtues rising will appear "more glorious and more dread, and trust themselves to "fear no second fate." In the third proposition of the first sentence also, the opposite change can be made, thus; "Though it be oppressed"; "Though it be fallen"; and so on in other similar cases.

The first line or address, so far as it belongs to any proposition, is connected with some following one not given in the quotation.

In the parsing, "Powers," "Dominions," "Deities," are nominatives of address, a species of independent case corresponding with the Latin vocative.—"For," which is properly a preposition; is generally considered, when used as here, a conjunction, it may however readily be shown to be still as before a preposition. Supplying the ellipsis, the passage is, "I still call you Deities of Heaven, for *this reason*, that







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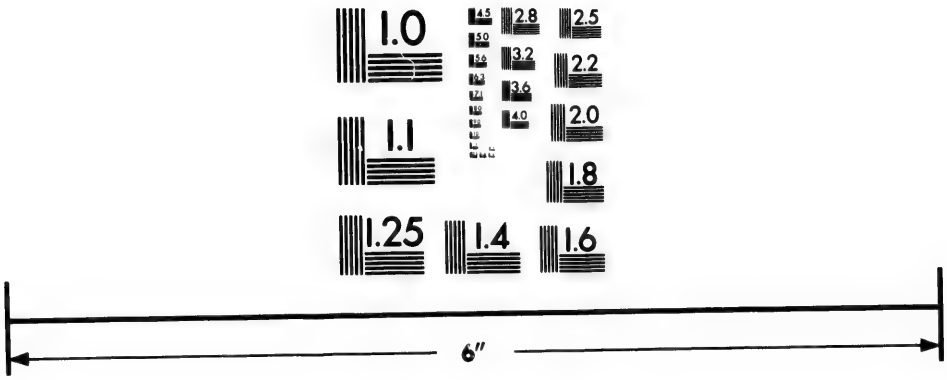

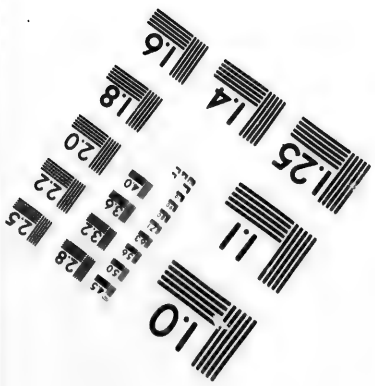

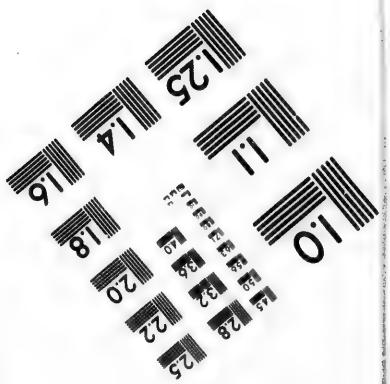

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I give not Heaven for lost." The proposition, "that I give not Heaven for lost," is in apposition with the noun, "reason," and is consequently object of the preposition, "for." It explains what the reason is. This is the case often as already shown with the prepositions, "before," "and after," and some others. (136.)

"Since"; relation, the two propositions; an adverbial conjunction coupling the propositions; the verb of the proposition before it is, "give"; of that after it, is, "can hold."—"Since" in its adverbial capacity usually refers to the modification of time; but it is also used as in this instance with reference to cause.

"Deep"; relation, "deep can hold"; an adjective used as a noun, nominative case, third person, singular number, subject to, "can hold." In general when an adjective is said to be used as a noun, it in reality refers to some noun understood as here, "no deep *place*."

"Within;" relation, "hold within gulf," a preposition showing the grammatical connection (or relation) between "hold" and "gulf."

"Can hold"; properly two words, and should be parsed accordingly. "Can" is an irregular transitive verb, present tense, indicative mood, &c., having deep for its subject. That "can" is indicative mood will be made evident by expressing its meaning in other words; thus, "can hold," is equivalent to, "is able to hold," the verb in which (is) is obviously indicative. "Hold;" relation, "can hold"; is what is usually termed an infinitive mood governed by, "can," according to the common rule, one verb governs another in the infinitive mood; as already stated, (43) this so called infinitive is a verbal noun in the objective case governed by, "can." Compare the Latin construction with "possum."

If "can hold" be taken as one word, "can" will give a potential force to the compound word "can-hold."

"Oppressed," "fallen"; relation, "it" (meaning vigour) "oppressed and fallen"; they are verbal adjectives qualifying, "it." "Oppressed" with some part of the verb "to be" understood taken as one word would form a passive verb. (36.)

"Lost"; relation, "lost thing," latter word being understood, as is evident from the meaning, thus, "I give not Heaven for a lost thing"; in common language, "I do not give up Heaven as lost." "Lost" is a verbal adjective (past passive participle) qualifying, "thing," understood.

"From," (in the second sentence) relation, "rising from descent"; a preposition showing the relation between, "rising" and "descent."

"Rising"; relation, "virtues rising"; a present participle (verbal adjective) qualifying, "virtues."

"Will appear"; relation, "virtues will appear"; taken as one word, is the future tense of the verb "to appear." Properly "will" is an active transitive verb, present indicative, third person, plural number, of the verb "to will." That "will" indicates futurity in the verb to which it is added, does not arise from the tense of "will," but from its meaning; it indicates a wish or an intention, which must of course have reference to an action not yet done and therefore future. "Will" like the other auxiliaries, except "to be," is transitive, taking its object in the form of an infinitive mood. "Appear" is a verbal noun, (commonly called an infinitive mood) in the objective case governed by, "will;" "appear" is properly a transitive word; it means, "to assume the appearance of," and in every instance takes an object after it, that object being always a so called infinitive mood; thus "He appears an honest man," is, "He appears *to be* an honest man," in the sentence before us, "to be," is understood, "will appear *to be* glorious and dread."

"Glorious," "dread"; relation, "virtues glorious and dread"; they are adjectives qualifying "virtues."

"And"; relation, "appear and trust"; "and" is a conjunction coupling "appear" and "trust." Hence as, "and," couples like things, (92) "trust," will be parsed in the same way as "appear."

"Themselves"; relation, "trust themselves to fear"; it is a word of double relation, being partly the object of, "trust," and partly the subject of "to fear." The word,

" self," or its plural, " selves," may be added to a case of the personal pronouns, thereby forming a species of compound personal pronoun as, " myself," " himself," " themselves," &c. These words are all pronouns, and as they equally mark the persons they are personal pronouns; they are most commonly used to increase the force of the personal, as " I myself," &c. They may be called compound, as consisting of two words; or sometimes, " reciprocal" or " reflective," as indicating the fact of the same person or thing doing and receiving the action, as " I strike *myself*."

" To fear"; relation, " trust to fear"; a verbal noun (commonly called infinitive mood) object of " trust." These words being verbal retain necessarily some of the grammatical properties of the verb; thus they have tense and voice, and take after them the same construction as the verbs they belong to. In the same way also it is impossible to use one of these infinitive moods in a proposition without some word being expressed or understood before it having the same connection with it, as a subject has with a verb; if we use the verb, " to go," in a proposition, there must be also the name of the person or thing that is to execute the action indicated by, " to go";—as, " It is time to go": in this and all similar instances there must be some person or thing meant to perform the action, otherwise the word could not be used; the name of the person or thing is often expressed, as, " It is time for us to go," " trust themselves to fear," &c., and that word does the same duty before the infinitive mood as the subject does before the verb.

(172.) The following is a complex sentence (one principal and one or more dependent propositions) and affords a convenient example of the mode of applying the rules of analysis.

" Thus, while the traditions of all nations have pre-
" served the remembrance of a great catastrophe, the
" deluge, which changed the earth's surface, and destroyed
" nearly the whole of the human species, geology apprizes
" us that of the various revolutions, which have agitated
" our globe, the last evidently corresponds to the period,
" which is assigned to the deluge."

In dividing this into propositions, giving them as much as possible in the order of their grammatical connection, and beginning consequently with the principal, we have as follow :—

1st. "Thus geology apprizes us"—principal.

2nd. "That the last of the various revolutions evi-
"dently corresponds to the period"—Dependent, part of the object of "apprizes."

3rd. "Which have agitated our globe"—dependent, completing the antecedent, "revolutions."

4th. "Which is assigned to the deluge"—dependent, completing the antecedent, "period."

5th. "While the traditions of all nations have pre-
"served the remembrance of a great catastrophe, the "deluge"—dependent, complement of time to "apprizes."

6th. "Which changed the earth's surface"—dependent, completing the antecedent, "deluge."

7th. "(Which)destroyed nearly the whole of the human "species"—dependent, completing the antecedent, "deluge," and coupled by "and" to the preceding.

I have called the second proposition the object of the verb, "apprize"; it is so in part. Verbs expressing the actions of asking and teaching necessarily take after them two *apparent* objects, because, if we ask, we must ask *something, of or from some person;* and, if we teach, we must teach *something*, to *some person.* In verbs of asking, the question or thing demanded is usually the real object, and the name of the person is governed by a preposition understood. This seems to be the case from the nature of the action expressed by the word ask, the idea being that of *seeking to obtain something* of or from some person, thus we say, "I asked nothing of him." "I asked him what o'clock it was," meaning "I asked of him," or "sought to obtain from him," the information required by the following question. Some verbs of teaching are used in a double sense, meaning both to give instruction *in* something and *to* some person; thus we say, "I taught him Latin," giving the verb taught two apparent objects; when from the nature

of the action expressed by "taught," the name of the person would appear to be the legitimate object; yet we often say "I taught Latin to him," using the verb in the sense of "giving instruction *in*," and thus making the name of the thing the object. Other verbs of teaching, "to instruct," for instance are not used in this double capacity; to instruct always takes the name of the person as its object.

The verb, "apprizes," in the example usually does the same, as, "I apprized him of the fact," and thus in the principal proposition, "us," is the real object, "geology apprizes us" (of the fact) and the second proposition states the fact, that is, it is in apposition with the noun, "fact," [understood] and if it could be written as one word it should be parsed as a noun in apposition with "fact." A few words may be parsed for the sake of example.

"Thus"; relation, "apprizes thus." An adverb modifying apprizes. "Thus," is the adverb of the same family as the adjective, "this," and may be expressed by the corresponding phrase "in this way."

"While," couples the two propositions, of which the respective verbs are, "apprizes," of the former and "have preserved" of the latter. "While," in its adverbial capacity refers to duration of time, and may be explained by the phrase, "during the time during which"; as, "I sat while he remained." "I sat during the time, during which he remained." It is often used generally, that is, without any strict allusion to time as in the 5th proposition of the example.

"Deluge"; relation, "catastrophe, the deluge" a noun, objective case, third person, singular number, and objective case, in apposition with "catastrophe." Nouns in apposition with each other, are in the same case, only because in consequence of being different names for the same thing they usually fall in the same position with regard to the other words of the proposition; when such does not occur the nouns are not in the same case; thus in the phrase "The City of Toronto," "City" and "Toronto" are different names for the same thing, but are not in the same, case in consequence of the unnecessary introduction of

"of." "I strike myself"; "I" and "myself" are different names for the same person, but are not in the same case, because they are in different relations with the word, "strike."

"Nearly." This word and many other adverbs are very frequently parsed incorrectly, from the common practice of connecting them in sense with the next verb. In the example before us, the relation of "nearly" is, "whole nearly," and "nearly" is an adverb modifying "whole." But the word "whole," in consequence of the article "the" before it, is assumed to be a noun; it is however an adjective meaning "entire," and qualifying some noun understood, such as, "portion" or "mass"; the phrase is "nearly the whole (or entire) mass," &c., that is, "the mass nearly whole" (or entire.) This is evident from considering the obvious meaning of the passage, namely, "destroyed (not the whole but) nearly the whole mass of the human race."

"Of," (2nd proposition) relation, "last of the revolutions"; "of" is a preposition showing the relation between, "last," and "revolutions." This is made evident by reading the proposition in its natural order.

CHAPTER XII.

ELLIPSIS IN LANGUAGE—EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS AND PARSING CONTINUED—YET, THEREFORE—VERBS COMPOUNDED—ADVERBS USED AS NOUNS—FUTURE PARTICIPLES—ORDER OF THE PREDICATE—COMPLICATED STRUCTURE—FORM OF EXCLAMATION—INTRANSITIVE VERBS MADE PASSIVE BY JOINING A PREPOSITION TO THEM.

(173.) Ellipsis in Language arises from the general wish to express the thoughts as rapidly and readily as possible, so that we acquire the habit of omitting every word that can be left out without interfering with the meaning; for the same reason also, we constantly contract words, unite several into one, leave out or soften sounds, and adopt various other means to facilitate the pronunciation of words,

and expression of thoughts. The limit is, no word should be left out whose omission would make the sense doubtful or obscure.

Occasionally, on attempting to analyze, several words are found to be omitted and these have to be introduced in order to complete the full expression of the sense.

"It deserves to be mentioned only that it may be despised."

The first proposition (principal) ends at "only"—Second "that it may be despised."

The difficulty in analyzing this depends on the relation of the word "only"—if it modify "deserves," or "mentioned," the meaning will be, "it only deserves," or "to be only mentioned," or "only to be mentioned."—An instant's consideration will show that none of these is correct, and if so, it will appear to belong to the second verb; the meaning will then be "that it may be only despised," that is, "that it may receive," "that sort of treatment only, and no other." The true meaning is, "it deserves to be mentioned *for this reason* only, (alone,) and "only" is an adjective qualifying some noun understood, such as "reason;" "only" is often used for the adjective "alone."

"May be despised," relation, "it may be despised," is commonly considered one word, and if so, may then be called the present tense, potential mood, passive voice of the verb "to despise;" but these are three words, and to fulfil the intention of parsing, they should be so considered. Properly, "may" is the present indicative of the auxiliary defective verb, "may," used as a sign of the potential mood. These auxiliary verbs are transitive (168 end) and the object of "may" here is "be," which is therefore a verbal noun (infinitive mood) governed by, "may." "Despised" considered separately is a verbal adjective, qualifying "it,"—"be despised" taken together would be a verbal noun, object of "may," commonly called the present infinitive passive (one verb governs another in the infinitive mood.)

(174.) "Although it was my wish to set out at once, yet as the messenger had not arrived, I decided to remain, and therefore went to a hotel."

In this sentence, as there are four verbs, there must be at least four propositions, and as these propositions are sufficiently connected in sense to be included in the same sentence, (that is, not to be separated from each other by full stops,) so they must be connected by conjunctive words.

Placing the principal proposition first, these are:—

1st. "Yet I decided to remain"—principal.

2nd. "And therefore went to a hotel"—also principal, coupled by "and" to the preceding.

3rd. "Although it was my intention to set out at once"—dependent, adversative complement to "decided."

4th. "As the messenger had not arrived"—dependent, complement of the cause to "decided."

This analysis shows how the four propositions are coupled together, namely: the two dependent (3rd and 4th) coupled to the principal respectively by "although," and, "as," adverbial conjunctions; and the two principal propositions (1st and 2nd) coupled by, "and."

It appears clear that, "yet," is here in no respect conjunctive, nevertheless it is commonly considered a conjunction, though it is really a mere adverb. This will be rendered more clear by substituting a phrase for "yet"; it signifies, "notwithstanding this circumstance," which is an adverbial phrase and has no coupling power—the mistake of calling, "yet," a conjunction instead of an adverb, originates in the fact of our so often leaving out the coupling word, which duty then seems to be performed by "yet"; as; "I have tried often yet I can not do it"; here are two propositions, so connected in sense that they must be coupled in words, and the position of "yet," appears exactly that of a conjunction; but in this example, we mean, (and indeed very often express) "I have often tried *and* yet (notwithstanding my trial) I can not do it." If the construction be varied so as to introduce, "though," the fact will be just as obvious; "Though I have often tried it, yet I can not succeed;" here the two propositions are coupled by, "though," and the sentence runs, "I yet can not succeed, though I have often tried;" or, resolving,

"yet," "I can not succeed, notwithstanding the fact, though I have often tried."

The word, "therefore," is commonly called a conjunction for a similar reason. In the example before us, it can not be a conjunction, the coupling word, "and," being expressed. "Therefore" means, "consequently," "for this reason" or "on this account," "in consequence of this;" these are adverbial phrases, and the proposition is, "and *in consequence of this* I went to a hotel;" "therefore" is an adverb modifying "went."

It may be observed of the analysis of this sentence that the 3rd proposition, beginning, "although," is called an adversative complement of, "decided," because it indicates the opposition existing between the decision to remain, and the intention to set out.

"To set out" taken as one word is the subject to "was," "it," being only introduced by usage for convenience sake; hence "to set out," is a verbal noun, nominative case, subject to "was," and in apposition with "it;" that is, "it," is only another name for the action expressed by, "to set out." Taking "to set out" as the subject, intention becomes the nominative case after, "was," (57). In all such propositions, "it," merely representing the verbal noun (infinitive mood) may be omitted, as here; "although to set out at once was my intention."

(175.) In such examples, the word, "out," is usually parsed separately and called an adverb modifying "to set." This is scarcely correct; we often add a word to the verb to *alter the meaning* slightly, not to express any of the usual modifications applied to the idea of action; in such cases the word though written separately from the verb, should be parsed with it, as both are used together to express the one action. Thus, "out," in the example does not seem to modify the word "set," but rather to be attached to it to alter the meaning, so that, "to set out," shall express a different action from, "to set," and one which there chances to be no *one* word to express. This is done in various languages, Latin and Greek especially, by compounding prepositions or particles with verbs, (some

of which particles are only used in composition); thus, "dare" in Latin is, "to give," but compounded with "de," it becomes "dedere" "to give up." We have not the same facility in English, and in many instances it is not requisite, the word so compounded with the verbs being real prepositions which may be used separately, as, "ire" "to go," "transire" "to go across," "trans," and "across," being both prepositions which may be used separately. The same mode of composition is sometimes, but not often, adopted in English as in the word "to undergo" (to go under) and some other similar instances.

The adverbial conjunction, "as," couples the dependent proposition to the principal, as stated; but in its adverbial capacity it refers to the modification of cause; its proper duty is to indicate manner: but besides cause and manner it occasionally indicates time, as in the following sentence, "I saw him *as* I was going along the road."

"To remain;" relation, "decided to remain" a verbal noun (infinitive mood) object of "decided"—It may be questioned whether "to decide" is ever transitive; common usage makes it both transitive and intransitive, as, "The judge decided the case in his favour." "He said he would decide on the course he meant to pursue." If it be intransitive there must be a word (a preposition) to express the relation between the action of deciding and the thing decided on.

The phrase, "at once," is usually quietly disposed of in parsing by calling it an adverbial phrase, which is undoubtedly true; many other phrases might as well be parsed in the same way, but as it consists of two words, each should be considered separately; thus, in the example, "at," is a preposition showing the relation between "to set out" and "once;" "once" is properly an adverb, meaning "at one time," but it is used here as a noun in the objective case and should be parsed accordingly. In the same way we say, "for ever," "everywhere," "from thence," &c. The last phrase though frequently used is decidedly incorrect.

(176.) "Of man's miraculous mistakes this bears
"The palm, 'That all men are about to live,'

" For ever on the brink of being born:
" All pay themselves the compliment to think
" They one day shall not drivel, and their pride
" On this reversion takes up ready praise;
" At least their own; their future selves applaud,
" How excellent that life they ne'er will lead!

1st Proposition.—" Of man's miraculous mistakes this bears the palm"—principal;—subject, " Of man's miraculous mistakes this (one)" predicate, " bears the palm."

2nd——" That all men are about to live;"—dependent—in apposition with, " this," (" this one," or " this mistake").

3rd——" (That all men are) for ever on the brink of being born."—dependent, in apposition with " this."

4th——" All pay themselves the compliment to think;"—principal—coupled by, " and," understood to the first.

5th——" (That) they one day shall not drivel;"—dependent,—object of " think."

6th——" And their pride on this reversion takes up ready praise;"—principal, coupled by " and " to the 4th.

7th——" (It takes up) at least their own (praise);"—principal, coupled by " and," understood to the preceding.

8th——" Their future selves applaud;"—principal, coupled by " and," understood to the preceding.

9th——" How excellent that life (is);"—dependent, coupled by the adverbial conjunction, " how," to the preceding, and object of " applaud."

10th——" (Which) they ne'er will lead;"—dependent, coupled by " which" to the preceding, and completing the antecedent, " life."

" Of," (1st proposition) relation, " this " (or this mistake) " of mistakes;" a proposition showing the relation between " this," (this mistake) and " mistakes." " Of" is used to indicate possession, as, " the house of my father," or in the sense of " out of," or " from among," as in the example, where the full meaning is, " this mistake from among all man's miraculous mistakes."

" About to live," (taken as one word) relation, " men about to live:" future participle of the verb, " to live," qualifying " men."

In the two following examples: "All men *living* now shall pass away," and, "All men *about to live* hereafter shall pass away," "living," and "about to live," are equally participles qualifying "men," and differing only in tense, "living" referring to the present, and "about to live," to the future time.

But "about to live" consists of two words "about" and "to live," (assuming "to live" as one word) the former is a preposition governing the verbal noun, "to live." The future participle in English has two signs, "to" or "about to;" these vary slightly in meaning;—"I am *to live* in Toronto," denotes a sort of necessity; "I am *about to live* in Toronto," expresses a mere intention. "I am *going* to live in Toronto," has a similar meaning, but is a vulgarism, though in some measure sanctioned by usage.

"For ever" an adverbial phrase; "for," a preposition showing the grammatical connection between "are" understood and "ever;" "ever," is an adverb used as a noun, in the objective case, governed by "for."

"Being born," (taken as one word) is a verbal noun in the objective case, governed by "of." Treated thus, it is the present participle, passive *form* of the verb "to be born," which in this sense is only used in the passive *form* (compound). It is, however, evidently a form of the passive of the verb "to bear," passive "to be borne," and in the form above, "to be born." "Being" and "born," are two words and should, if possible, be parsed as such; if the words be used they must be applied to some word understood indicating the person or persons, and if this word be supplied "being" and "born" will be participles (verbal adjectives), qualifying that word; thus in the example, the full phrase would be, "of *them* being born;" usage would not admit of the word "them," being so expressed, but the words "being born" may from the ideas they express, be so applied.

"Themselves," relation "to themselves," personal reciprocal pronoun, governed by "to."

"To think," relation, "compliment to think;" a verbal noun in apposition with "compliment," it explains what the compliment is.

"Day;" relation, "(on) one day," a noun in the objective case governed by "on" understood. In general, nouns indicating the time, measurement of space, &c., are in the objective case governed by a preposition, which is very often not expressed as in the present instance.

"Up," (6th proposition) should be parsed with "takes," and both be treated as one word (175).

"At least," relation, "takes up at least," is commonly treated as an adverbial phrase; properly, "at" is a preposition, and "least," is an adjective used as a noun, objective case governed by "at."

"Own," relation, "own praise," an adjective qualifying "praise," (understood). "Own," is commonly called a pronoun, apparently for no reason whatever, except that it is very often used without the noun to which it refers. The word, "their," is the possessive case of the personal pronoun, "they," or a possessive pronominal adjective qualifying "praise."

"Selves," relation, "selves applaud," a pronoun, nominative case, third person, plural number, masculine gender, subject to "applaud;" "self," is not generally used except in composition, with the personal pronouns; when used separately as here, it is evidently a pronoun because it may be made to stand for any noun.

"How," is an adverbial conjunction coupling the two propositions. This will be understood by considering the meaning of the word;—"How," signifies, "the manner in which," or "the degree to which." Substitute one of these phrases between the two propositions, and we have as follow: "Their future selves applaud *the degree in which* that life is excellent;" of these two propositions, the former is, "their future selves applaud the degree," and the latter is, "in which that life is excellent;" thus "how" belongs in meaning to both the propositions, and the phrase representing it constitutes a part of each; it must consequently be the link between them. "How" in its adverbial capacity may be said to modify "excellent." The 8th and 9th propositions might be considered only one, thus, "their future selves applaud that life how excellent;" "how" would then be an adverb.

(177.) "How," which often commences an interrogation, is here used in some measure in an exclamatory sense. An exclamation, when it contains the parts of a proposition (subject and predicate) assumes nearly the form of a question, and indeed assimilates very nearly in meaning to a question. The words, "how excellent is that life," considered apart from the remainder of the sentence, may be either an interrogation, or an exclamation; the former is not a proposition (112), but the latter may perhaps be so considered; it is impossible to say, "what a fine day this is!" without letting it be clearly understood that your opinion of the day is, that it is decidedly fine.

In completing the analysis of the 10th proposition (and in all similar cases) care should be taken to read the predicate in the grammatical order, that is, placing the complements as much as possible, after the words they complete; thus, "will lead which never;" principal word, (grammatical predicate) "will lead," (calling it one word)—object, "which," complement of time, "never." "Will" taken separately is present tense;—"lead" parsed separately, is a verbal noun, object of "will."

(178.) Some sentences are very complicated in their structure, the various parts and complements of different propositions being mingled up with each other in such a way as to render the analysis difficult.

"You see this animal alight upon the plants, where the "caterpillar (which is the appropriate food of her young) "is to be met with, run quickly over them, carefully ex- "amining every leaf, and having found the unfortunate "object of her search, insert her sting into its flesh, and "there deposit an egg."

In this and all similar sentences where the parts are very much involved, the best mode of procedure, is to select in succession the dependent propositions as indicated by the adverbial conjunctions and relative pronouns, the remaining words, often so scattered that the connections between them are not easily traced, can then be more readily grouped together, and will usually be found to form the principal proposition or propositions of the sentence.

Following this rule the propositions in the above example are as follow:—

1st. "Where the caterpillar is to be met with," dependent completing "alight" in the preceding proposition or plants. (96.)

2nd. "Which is the appropriate food of her young" dependent,—completing the antecedent "caterpillar."

3rd. "You see this animal alight upon the plants, run "quickly over them, carefully examining every leaf, and "having found the unfortunate object of her search, insert "her sting into its flesh, and there deposit an egg."

This proposition is principal; subject, "you;" predicate, the remainder; the principal word of the predicate is "see," hence the whole proposition asserts the quality "seeing" (expressed by the word "see',) of the subject "you;"—all the remaining words constitute complements of "see." "See" is a transitive word and must have an object after it; this can always be found out by asking the question "what" after the verb, thus, "See what?" "this animal alight upon the plants," this is one object; "(this animal) run quickly over them, carefully examining every leaf," this is another object; "this animal, having found the un- "fortunate object of her search, insert her sting into its "flesh," this is another object; "this animal there depo- "sit an egg," this is another object.

This proposition (and all similar) can be divided into as many separate propositions as there are separate objects, as thus; "You see this animal alight upon the plant" one proposition; "You see this animal run quickly over them, "carefully examining every leaf," this is another proposition, and the remainder can be similarly treated.

All these objects are infinitive phrases coupled together by "and," as will be made evident by reading the infinitive moods coupled by "and" and omitting the other words; "alight and run and insert and deposit." A full infinitive phrase consists of parts corresponding to those of a proposition (159), that which answers to the subject being found out by asking the question "whom" before the infinitive mood; in each of these infinitive phrases "this ani-

mal" stands for the subject, and the remainder of each phrase represents the predicate.

(179.) In parsing these phrases it must be recollected that the so called infinitive moods are really verbal nouns, objects of the verb "see," and the relation of each is, "see alight," "see run," &c.

"Animal," being partly the object of see and partly doing the duty of subject to the infinitive moods, is a word of double relation, "see animal alight," "see animal run," &c.; it is therefore in the objective case, being partly the object of "see" and partly the subject of "alight."

These infinitive moods, though a species of noun, being also verbal (names of actions) can have after them the same complements as verbs; hence we find after alight, the adverbial phrase "upon the plants;" and after the transitive words "insert" and "deposit," the objects, "sting" and "egg."

In the phrase "examining every leaf carefully," "examining" is the principal word, because the others are dependent on it, "carefully" telling the manner; and "every leaf" being the object; hence the whole phrase completes the word on which "examining" depends; this "is readily ascertained by asking what examining?" the answer is "animal," therefore the phrase completes "animal," and the relation of "examining," is "animal examining," a verbal adjective (present participle) qualifying "animal."

In the same way, the relation of "having found" (taken as one word) is found to be, "animal having found," it is a verbal adjective qualifying "animal." These participles have tense and voice (108) and this one marked by the sign "having" is a perfect participle, "having" been used as the sign of the perfect tense; it is also active, as the word "animal" to which it refers is doing the action, (106) it is is therefore the perfect active participle of the verb "to find."—Like the other compound forms in which the verb "to have" is used, this also should be parsed as separate words; "having," thus considered is the present participle (verbal adjective) qualifying "animal," and "found" is a verbal noun object of "having" (106).

"Where," an adverbial conjunction coupling the two propositions—it is remarkable that all these adverbial conjunctions when expressed by corresponding phrases are found to include the relative pronoun "which," and in right of this property they possess the conjunctive power; many of them also commence with "wh," the first letters of which—in the example before us, "where" is equivalent to "among" or "in which."—Compare them with their corresponding adverbs, thus the adverbial conjunctions, "where," "whence," "whither," "wherefore," correspond respectively with the adverbs "here" or "there," "thence" or "hence," "hither" or "thither," "therefore."

(180.) "To be met with;" this phrase taken as one word is the future passive participle of the verb "to meet with" qualifying "caterpillar." In the proposition the "caterpillar is met with" the phrase "met with" (taking it as one word) is confessedly the past passive participle of the verb "to meet with," and the example "to be met with," differs from "met with" only in referring to the future time; if "met with" be considered a participle, so must the other form.

(181.) The word "with" is used peculiarly and requires explanation.—When a verb is expressed in the passive voice the subject is *enduring* the action, (40) and properly speaking, no verb can be so expressed except one in connection with which there is a word enduring the action, that is, only transitive verbs can be made passive—the verb "to meet," when followed by the preposition "with," is intransitive, and cannot be expressed in the passive voice; but if the preposition be joined with it and considered part of it, then "to meet with," is a transitive verb and can be changed to the passive form; thus the active proposition, "I met with him," can be made passive by making "met with," one word, when "him," will be its object, and the passive will be "he was met with by me," hence in parsing such passives, the preposition must be considered part of the verb, as it was only by taking it so that we were enabled to make the proposition passive. One of the most familiar instances of this construction is exhibited in the

passive form of the active proposition, "They laughed at him;" as "laughed" is intransitive, the proposition can be made passive only by taking "laughed at," one word when it becomes a transitive verb with "him," for its object, and the passive proposition will be "he was laughed at by them." In all such instances, the preposition can not be parsed separately, but must be looked upon as part of the verb or participle.

"Object," relation, "having found the object," a noun "in the objective case, governed by the perfect participle "having found," from the transitive verb "to find."

CHAPTER XIII.

EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS CONTINUED—PARSING OF "LET"—SIGN OF INFINITIVE MOOD—CONSTRUCTION AFTER THE INTERJECTION—EXPLETIVES—TENSE OF PARTICIPLES—EXAMPLES OF NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE—BOTH, AND, NEITHER, NOR—CHANGE IN THE MEANING.

(182.)The following is an example of the analysis of a sentence where the structure is very involved, and the sense carried on through a number of propositions and complements.

"Let us suppose (what is possible only in supposition) "a person who had never seen a bird to be presented with "a plucked pheasant, and bid to set his wits to work how "to contrive for it a covering, which shall unite the qua- "lities of warmth, lightness, and the least resistance to "the air, and the highest degree of each; giving it also as "much of beauty and ornament as he could afford: he is "the person to behold the work of the Deity, in this part "of his creation, with the sentiments which are due to it."

1st. Proposition.—"Let us suppose a person to be presented with a plucked pheasant, and bid to set his wits to work"—principal.

2nd. "What is possible only in supposition;" dependent. To distinguish these two propositions precisely, we

must divide the compound relative "what" into the two words it represents, namely, the antecedent "that" (meaning that circumstance) and the relative "which;" the word "that" will be part of the principal proposition, and "which" will commence the next, which is consequently dependent and completes the antecedent, "that circumstance."

3rd. "Who had never seen a bird;" dependent, complement of the antecedent "person."

4th. "How (he should proceed) to contrive for it a covering, giving it also as much of beauty and of ornament;" dependent, coupled to the first proposition by the adverbial conjunction "How," and completing "to work."

5th. "Which shall unite the qualities of warmth, lightness, and the least resistance to the air, and the highest degree of each."

6th. "As, (that is);" dependent, coupled to the 4th proposition by the adverbial conjunction, "as," and complement of degree to "as," (before "much.")

7th. "(Which) he could afford," coupled to the preceding by "which" and completing the antecedent, "that," understood.

8th. "He is the person to behold the work of the Deity, in this part of his creation, with the sentiments;"—principal, coupled by "and" (understood) to the first.

9th. "Which are due to it";—dependent, coupled by "which" to the preceding, and completing the antecedent, "sentiments."

(183.) In the first proposition, the subject is "thou" (understood), predicate the remainder. In the predicate the principal word is the verb "let" completed by the infinitive phrase "us to suppose," &c., to the end; in this infinitive phrase "to suppose" corresponds with the verb (150); "us" does the duty of the subject, and "to suppose a person to be presented with a plucked pheasant, and bid to set his wits to work" corresponds with the predicate (159). In this, "to suppose" is the principal word completed by the two infinitive phrases, its objects namely, "a person to be presented with a plucked pheasant," and

"a person, to be bid to set his wits to work." These infinitive phrases are analysed according to the examples of such phrases, already given; "a person" stands for the subject in each, and the remainder of each represents the predicate. In the phrase, "set his wits to work," set is the principal word, completed by "his wits" the object, and the verbal noun (infinitive mood) "to work"; or work may be considered a common noun, completing "to," the phrase then meaning "set his wits to the work of ascertaining how to contrive," &c.

In the second proposition; subject, "which;" predicate, "is possible only in supposition;" or, the attribute, "possible only in supposition," may be given separately from the verb "is."

In the third proposition; subject "who;" predicate, "had never seen a bird:" "had seen," principal word, having two complements, "a bird" the object and "never," the time.

In the fourth proposition, "he" is evidently the principal word of the subject, and "should proceed to contrive for it a covering," is evidently the predicate, the phrase "giving it also as much of beauty and of ornament" will belong to either the subject or the predicate, according as its principal word, "giving," completes a word in the one or the other. By asking the question "who or what giving" we find that the sense is "he giving," therefore the phrase is part of the subject and the whole subject is, "he giving it also as much of beauty and of ornament." In the phrase just considered, "giving" (the principal word) has three complements, namely, "to it;" "also"; and "as much of beauty and of ornament." In this last phrase "much" is the principal word, having three complements, namely, "as;" "of beauty" and "of ornament;" in each of these latter "of" is the principal word, &c.

In the fifth proposition, subject, "which;" predicate, "shall unite the qualities, of warmth, lightness, and the least resistance to the air;" in this predicate, "shall unite," is the principal word having one complement, "the qualities," &c.—in this, "qualities" is the principal word,

having three complements, namely "of warmth," "of lightness," and "of the least resistance to the air," each of which may be analyzed according to the examples already given.

In the sixth proposition, the subject is "that," attribute "much," (understood from the 4th proposition to which it is coupled;) this form will be more readily illustrated by reference to some more familiar proposition having a similar construction, (as "this house is as high as that,") meaning "as high as that house is high;" the quality of height is compared in each, and in the sixth proposition the quality of *muchness* of beauty and ornament in each is compared. The last few words of the 4th—the whole of the 6th and 7th propositions, read together, will run thus—"as much of beauty and of ornament, as that quantity is, which he could afford."

In the seventh proposition, "he," is the subject, "could afford which," is the predicate.

In the eighth proposition, "he," is the subject, "the person to behold the work of the Deity in this part of his creation, with the sentiments," is the attribute;—in this, "person," is the principal word, completed by the remainder; in the remainder, the principal word is understood, such as "fit," or "suited," completed by the following words, in which "to behold," is principal, having two complements, namely, "the work of the Deity, in this part of creation," and "with the sentiments;" in the former, "work," is the principal word, completed by "of the Deity," and "in this part of his creation," and so on of the rest.

In the ninth proposition, "which," is the subject; "are due to it," is the predicate; or, "due to it," is the attribute, &c.

(184.) The use of the word "let," (1st proposition,) in the imperative mood is peculiar, and will be discussed elsewhere; as regards the mere parsing, the relation of "let," is "thou let," an irregular transitive verb, imperative mood, second person, singular number, having "thou," for its subject.

"Us," relation, "let us suppose;" it is partly the object of "let," and partly the subject of "suppose."

"Suppose"; relation, "Let suppose"; it is a verbal noun (infinitive mood) object of "Let."

The word "what" in this and similar constructions is equivalent to "that which," and the usual practice is to parse these words separately. In this instance, "that," is a demonstrative pronoun object of "suppose;" strictly speaking, however, these demonstrative pronouns are really adjectives agreeing with some noun understood. (79) The only way to parse "what," without resorting to the above division, is to call it a relative pronoun subject to, "is."

"Only"; relation, "supposition only": an adjective (used for "alone") qualifying "supposition." The meaning is not, "is only," or "only possible," but "supposition only." "Only" is often used for "alone," as "he only was in the room," which evidently means, "he alone was in the room."

"Person"; relation, "suppose a person to be"; it is the objective case partly the object of suppose and partly the subject of "to be." It would be wrong to call "person" the object of "suppose," because we cannot "suppose a *person*, but we can "suppose the fact or the *being*."

"To be presented," as one word is a verbal noun (present infinitive passive) object of "suppose." "Presented" (taken separately) is a past passive participle (verbal adjective) qualifying person; the relation is, "person presented."

"Bid," is coupled by "and" to "presented," and is therefore parsed the same way; it is a past passive participle qualifying "person." Supplying, "to be," as in the analysis, the connection is, "to be presented," and "to be bid."

"To set," a verbal noun, governed by "for" understood; or "set" may be taken as the verbal noun, and "to" as the preposition governing it. The meaning is "bid to the setting" in other words "set" is the name of the action, "to," or "for" which the person is "bid. "To" is properly no part of the infinitive mood, it is a mere

sign gradually introduced after the infinitive ceased to be distinguished by a termination.

"Work," a verbal noun, governed by "to." In every instance the sign "to" and the verbal noun should be treated separately where possible.

"To contrive" is the name of the purpose or intention for which he should proceed. (106). It is therefore (if taken as one word) a verbal noun governed by "for" understood; as just stated, however, it is better to call "contrive" the verbal noun and "to" the preposition governing it. It is not the usage of the present time in English to introduce "for" before the so called infinitive mood, but it was so formerly, and the change is comparatively a late one, originating probably in the awkwardness of having the two prepositions, "for" and "to," coming together; this does not prevent the word being understood, inasmuch as we habitually omit many words absolutely necessary for the full expression of the sense.

(185.) "Shall," taken separately, is the present tense, indicative mood of the defective verb "shall." It should be carefully borne in mind that every auxiliary verb possesses a peculiar meaning and force which it transfers to the verb to which it is attached, thus giving to the action of that verb a modification as regards tense or mood different from those of the auxiliary; for instance, "I can," signifies "I am able"; this is evidently indicative, but when added to another verb it attaches to the idea of action expressed by such verb, the idea of ability to do it, and thus the compound verb becomes what is called the potential mood, namely the mood whereby the verb expresses the action accompanied by the idea of the power to perform it, as "I can go." In a similar manner "will" expresses the idea of wish or intention, and gives the idea of futurity to the verb to which it is attached, though if is itself the present tense. In the same way "have," "may," "will," are *present* tense; while, "had," "might," "would" are respectively the past tenses.

"Each," relation, "each quality"; an adjective qualifying "quality." Each is so frequently used without ex-

pressing the noun to which it refers, that it is commonly considered a pronoun. This however is not correct as it does not stand for a noun but qualifies one, expressed or understood. Some call it an adjective pronoun and parse it, as qualifying some noun. To call a word a pronoun of any sort, and say that it qualifies a noun is altogether illogical, violating the definitions both of the adjective and the pronoun.

"Also"; relation, "giving also" an adverb modifying "giving." This word is so commonly called a conjunction that some explanation is requisite. It has no coupling power, though it often seems to have, because the actual word "and" is so frequently understood. "Toronto is on the lake shore, so also is Hamilton"; here "and" is understood, and also signifies "in addition," an adverbial phrase; in the example, "giving also" means "giving *in addition*," the latter phrase obviously modifying "giving."

"It"; relation "to it"; personal pronoun, third person, &c., objective case governed by "to" understood. In languages where the case is marked by the termination, no preposition is understood; the termination is a *post position*, which marks the relation equally with the *preposition*.

(186.) "As"; relation "as much"; an adverb modifying "much." "As" is here used for "so," and in many instances we use either indifferently; thus we say, "so far as I know" or "as far as," &c. The former is correct; the latter is sanctioned by usage, therefore admissible, but should be avoided as much as possible.

"Much"; relation, "giving much"; an adjective used as a noun object of "giving"; it is strictly an adjective, agreeing with a noun understood and consequently in its capacity as an adjective can be modified by the adverb "as" (or "so"). "Much" here refers to quantity and means "a large quantity."

"Could afford," (as one word) active transitive verb, imperfect tense, potential mood, third person, singular number having "he" for its subject.

As this verb is transitive it must have an object after

it, according to the analysis, "which" understood is the object; considering however the meaning of the word "afford" and the use of the word "giving" in the previous proposition, it is better to supply the ellipsis, "to give which," and then the whole proposition will be, "which he could afford to give"; in this, the verbal noun "to give" is the object of "afford," and "which" is the object of "to give."

"To behold," apparently completes "fit" understood, (183) but if it be taken as one word "for" is understood, and the whole phrase is "person fit for to behold," or as before "behold" is the verbal noun governed by the preposition "to" (184).

"This"; relation, "this part" an adjective qualifying part. The adjectives "this" and "that" possess the peculiarity of having different forms for the plural numbers, "these" and "those." They are often called pronouns, being so frequently used without a noun. In a few cases possibly they may be so considered, but they almost always qualify nouns expressed or understood.

"Due"; relation "which due"; an adjective qualifying "which."

(187.) "On the other hand, a multitude of poor and "lawless men, attracted by the distribution of public "largesses and private gifts, were drawn together from "all quarters, and formed at Rome, the central point of "government, a mass which readily joined the party of "those who were struggling to raise themselves at the "expense of the state."

1st Proposition.—"On the other hand, a multitude of "poor and lawless men, attracted by the distribution of "public largesses and private gifts, were drawn together "from all quarters;" principal—Subject "a multitude of "poor and lawless men, attracted by the distribution of "public largesses and private gifts."—Predicate is the remainder of the proposition; or the attribute is the remainder except the verb.

In the subject the principal word is "multitude," completed by, "of poor and lawless men," that is one comple-

ment, and "attracted by the distribution of public largesses and private gifts;" that is another complement; its principal word is "attracted;" &c.

In the attribute, the principal word is "drawn," completed by, "on the other hand," one complement;—"together," another complement; and "from all quarters," is another—the analysis of these complements is simple.

2nd Proposition.—"(They) a mass, formed at Rome the central point of government;" principal, coupled by, "and," to the preceding;—subject, "they (understood) a mass;" principal word, "they," completed by "mass."

Predicate, "formed at Rome the central point of government;" principal word, "formed," having two complements; &c. It may be questioned whether the word "mass" completes the subject or is in apposition with, "point;" if the latter, it belongs to the predicate.

3rd Proposition.—"Which readily joined the party of those,"—dependent, complement of the antecedent "mass."—Subject, "which."—Predicate, the remainder. In the predicate "joined" is the principal word, completed by, "readily," and "the party of those."

4th Proposition.—"Who were struggling to raise themselves at the expense of the state;" dependent, complement of the antecedent, "those." Subject "who;" verb, "were;" attribute, the remainder. In this attribute "struggling" is the principal word, completed by the remainder. In this complement "to raise" is the principal word, having two complements, "themselves," and "at the expense of the state;" &c.

"On," (first proposition) relation, "drawn on hand;" a preposition showing the relation between "drawn" and "hand."

"Attracted;" relation, "men attracted;" a past passive participle (verbal adjective) qualifying "men."

(188.) "Supposing that the body of the earth were a "great mass or ball of the finest sand, and that a single "grain or particle of this sand should be annihilated every "thousand years; supposing then that you had it in your "choice to be happy all thewhile this enormous mass of sand

" was consuming, by this slow method, until there was not " a grain of it left, on condition you were to be miserable " for ever after; or supposing that you might be happy " for ever after, on condition you would be miserable until " the whole mass of sand were thus annihilated, at the " rate of one grain in a thousand years: which of these " two cases would you make your choice?"

Taking the propositions marked by adverbial conjunctions, as already suggested, they are as follow, namely:—

1st " That the body of the earth were a great mass or " ball of the finest sand."

2nd " That a single grain or particle of this sand should " be annihilated every thousand years;"

3rd " That you had it in your choice to be happy all " the while on condition."

4th " (During which) this enormous mass of sand was " consuming, by this slow method."

5th " Until there was not a grain of it left."

6th " (That) you were to be miserable for ever after."

7th " That you might be happy for ever after on con- " dition."

8th " That you would be miserable."

9th " Until the whole mass of sand were thus annihi- " lated, at the rate of one grain in a thousand years."

10th " Which of these two cases would you make your " choice?"

These propositions evidently exist in the sentence, as distinguished above; but some words are omitted, and it is necessary to ascertain whether these omitted words constitute a separate proposition, or are connected with any of the foregoing propositions.

The omitted words are, " Supposing," " supposing then, or supposing;" they must refer to some person who is making the supposition, or offering the condition, and as there is a question asked, the words " supposing," &c. may be taken as referring to the person asking that question, and there will be a proposition understood running thus; " I supposing," &c. (all the conditions given in the dependent propositions) " ask you."

These words may also be treated as belonging to the subject of the interrogation, as thus, "which of these two "cases would you, supposing such or such conditions to "be given, make your choice?" The sense would be sufficiently accurately expressed by either mode of analysis, but the former is the better, because as a question is put it must be put by some one, and the conditions may fairly be considered to be annexed by the person giving the question.

(189.) The first proposition is dependent, object of "supposing;" "that," is understood—Subject, "the body of the earth;" predicate, "were a great mass or ball of the finest sand."

The second proposition is dependent; object of "supposing," and coupled by, "and," to the preceding. Subject, "a single grain or particle of this sand;" predicate, "should be annihilated every thousand years."

Third proposition is dependent, object of "supposing;" "Subject, "you," predicate, "had it in your choice to be happy all the while on condition." Principal word "had," having two complements, namely, "in your choice," and "it," to be happy all the while "on condition;" in this latter complement, the pronoun "it" stands for the infinitive phrase, "(yourself) to be happy all the while on condition," hence in the entire complement "it" may be taken as the principal word, and the infinitive phrase in apposition with it; in this phrase, "yourself" will be doing the duty of subject, and the remainder the predicate, in which "to be" and "happy" are both principal words, the former completed by, "all the while," and "on condition."

The fourth proposition is dependent, coupled by "which" understood to the preceding, and completing the antecedent "while," used for "time." Subject "this enormous mass of sand;" verb, "was" attribute, "consuming (during which) by this slow method;" in this, "consuming," is the principal word, having two complements; &c.

The fifth proposition is dependent, coupled to the preceding by "until," and complement of time to "consu-

ming." Subject, "a grain of it left;" predicate "there was not." In the subject "grain" is the principal word; completed by "left," and "of it;" in the predicate was is the principal word, completed by, "there," and "not." It should be observed that the assertion here is not "until a grain of it was not left;" but until a single left (remaining) grain was not" (did not exist.) It might also be analyzed the former way, namely, subject "a grain of it,"—predicate, "was not left."

The sixth proposition is dependent, coupled by "that" understood to the third, and completing "condition" (telling what the condition was.) Subject "you;" predicate the remainder.

The seventh proposition is dependent, object of "supposing." Subject "you;" predicate, the remainder; principal words "might be" (taken as one) and "happy;" the former having three complements, namely, "for ever"—"after"—and "on condition." The word after, means "after that time," and the whole phrase is a complement of time to "might be."

The eighth proposition is dependent, coupled by "that" to the preceding, and completing "condition."

The ninth proposition is dependent, coupled by "until" to the preceding, and complement of time to "would be." Subject the "whole mass of sand:" attribute, "annihilated at the rate of one grain in a thousand years." In this "annihilated" is the principal word, completed by the remainder; in this, "at" is the principal word, completed by "the rate of one grain in a thousand years;" in this, "rate" is the principal word, completed by the remainder; in this, "of" is the principal word, completed by the remainder in this "grain" is the principal word, completed by "one," and, "in a thousand years;" in this latter, "a thousand" means, "one thousand;" principal word is "in," completed by "one thousand (of) years;" in this, "thousand" is principal completed by "one," and "of years." It is evident that in such phrase the article, "a," means "one," and here refers not to the number of years, but to the number of *thousands*.

The tenth (so called) proposition, is only an interrogation, no quality being asserted of a subject; if it were changed so as to make it an assertion, it would run thus, "you would make which of these two cases your choice." The subject therefore is, "you;" predicate, "would make which of these two cases your choice." In this predicate, "would make," (as one word) is principal, completed by the remainder, an infinitive phrase, "to be" being understood, and the whole phrase is, "which of these two cases *to be* your choice;" this is analysed in the usual way.

(190.) In either of the modes of analysis suggested regarding the words "supposing" as repeated in the sentence, they are part of the subject, qualifying, "I," in the first method; or "you" in the second.

"Supposing;" the first two of these words are coupled by "and," and the third is coupled to them by "or;" they are verbal adjectives (present participles) qualifying "I," or "you," as already stated in the analysis.

"Mass;" relation, "body a mass," nominative case after "were" because there is a nominative before it.

"Were;" relation, "body were;" it is the imperfect subjunctive of the verb "to be;" "were" is the plural form and this marks it as the subjunctive, which is distinguished in form from the indicative, only by assuming the third plural of the indicative, for the third singular in each tense of the subjunctive.

"Should be annihilated," (as one word) is the imperfect tense, potential mood, passive voice, of the verb "to annihilate;" or, if each word be taken separately, "should" is the imperfect indicative of the active transitive defective verb "shall;" "be," is a verbal noun (infinitive mood) object of "should;" "annihilated," is a verbal adjective (past passive participle) from the verb "to annihilate" qualifying "grain," or "particle."

"Every;" relation, "every thousand;" an adjective qualifying "thousand."

(191.) "Thousand;" relation, "(in) thousand;" a noun, objective case, third person, singular number, neuter gender, governed by "in," understood.

"Years;" relation, "(of) years;" the objective case, governed by "of." The whole phrase means, "on each (every) thousand of years;" "hundred," "thousand," "million," &c., are all nouns, not adjectives, as is commonly said. "Ten," though often used as an adjective, is as often a noun—thus we say "Tens of thousands were slaughtered." In the phrase "one thousand men," the word one evidently indicates the number of thousands and not of men; so also in "six thousand," the peculiarity being that by a vulgar usage, in this and many other analogous phrases we say "thousand," and "hundred," for "thousands," and "hundreds," just as we say commonly "ten hundred of beef," instead of "ten hundreds of beef," "ten stone weight," instead of "stones," &c. If we write "ten hundred" as *one word*, it may be called a numeral adjective, and thus when we find these numerals represented by figures, as "1000," "10,000," we may treat each as one word and call it a numeral adjective.

"Then;" relation, "supposing then;" an adverb, modifying "supposing." This word, as well as "now," is frequently used as a sort of expletive, as when we say "now then, let us go." "Then" is used somewhat in this way in the example, it has but little force and might be represented by "next," or "in the next place."

"It;" (3rd proposition) relation, "had it;" personal pronoun, object of "had," and in apposition with the verbal noun "to be." Ask the question "had what in your choice?" the answer is, "it," namely, "to be happy," &c.

"To be," relation, "it to be;" a verbal noun, in apposition with "it," and object of "had."

"Happy;" relation, "yourself happy;" an adjective, qualifying "yourself" understood.

"While;" relation, "(during) the while;" a noun, in the objective case, governed by "during" understood. "While," is properly an adverbial conjunction, used here as a noun. It is very often used for the word "time," just as "where" is used for *place* in the phrase "every where."

"On;" relation, "to be on condition;" a preposition, showing the grammatical connection (relation) between "to be," and "condition."

"Was consuming;" (as one word) an intransitive verb, the imperfect tense, indicative mood, third person, singular number, having "mass" for its subject. These are two words and should be parsed separately; "consuming," relation, "mass consuming;" a present participle, (verbal adjective) qualifying "mass." "Consuming" is here called intransitive, because it does not take an object after it, being used in the sense of "wasting away." Many transitive verbs are used in this manner, as, "I moved to the table;" in such phrases, if the verb be transitive, the object will be the same individual as the subject, and this usage corresponds somewhat to the Greek middle voice. The form consisting of the verb "to be," and the present *active* participle of some other verb is used to express continuance of the action. "Consuming" is here used somewhat in a *passive* sense, instead of "being consumed." Thus we say "the house is *building*," instead of "being built;" though the latter form is now becoming common.

"Until;" relation, "the two propositions;" an adverbial conjunction, coupling the two propositions. It is equivalent to the phrases, "to the time, on which;" the former being a complement of "consuming," and the latter being a complement of "left."

(192.) "There;" relation, "was there;" an adverb, modifying "was." This word, when used as in this example, is called an expletive adverb, because it merely *fills up* a space, and has little or no meaning. Where any part of the verb "to be" is used without an attribute being separately expressed after it, the proposition would read awkwardly, if the words were arranged in the natural order, subject, verb, &c., as "nobody is here," "nobody is;" to prevent this, in such instances, the subject is placed after the verb, to supply the place of the attribute, and the word "there," is introduced to fill up the space left by the subject, as, "there is nobody here," "there is nobody." But when the words are placed in their natural order "no-

body is here," the word "there," disappears. This use of the word "there" occurs where the verb "to be" denotes *existence*. "There" is sometimes, though not so frequently used with other verbs as in the following line, "breathes there a man with soul so dead?" "There" is also used in a very different sense as an adverb of place.

"Left;" relation, "grain left;" a past passive participle, qualifying "grain."

"To be;" relation, "you to be;" a future participle (verbal adjective,) qualifying "you." (108.) An apparent infinitive mood when placed after the verb "to be," will usually be found to be the future participle.

"Miserable;" relation, "you miserable;" an adjective, qualifying "you."

(193.) Participles are sometimes said to have no reference to time, because they are found joined to verbs of different tenses, as in the example before us, where a future participle is placed after a past tense. It will always, however, be found that it retains its tense with reference to the tense of the verb to which it is attached. Thus in the example, "to be," "or about to be," expresses a future time with reference to the time indicated by "were." "He was going," means that the action of "going," was *present*, that it was *being performed* at the moment of time indicated by "was." "They will be travelling," means that the action of travelling, will be *present*, that is, will be going on at the moment alluded to by the verb "will be;" here then the participles "going" and "travelling," still refer to the present tense, though joined, the one with a past, and the other with a future tense.

"Ever;" relation, "for ever;" an adverb, used as a noun, governed by "for." (176.) "Forever," if written as one word, would be an adverb. Any adverbial phrase written as one word becomes an adverb.

"After;" relation, "after that time;" (understood) a preposition, shewing the relation between "to be," and "time," (understood.) This and various other prepositions, are frequently used as above, without any nouns

being expressed after them, and as they then seemingly refer to the modifications of place or time, they are very improperly called adverbs. In fact they are in such instances, the first words of adverbial phrases, and if the preposition could be considered as representing the whole phrase, it might then be called an adverb. When we use the words, "below," "behind," "above," we must mean "below," "behind," or "above," some thing or person. Thus "he sat behind," means "he sat behind some person or thing," and the phrase "behind some person," is an adverbial phrase, but the first word of it, whether the others are expressed or not, is necessarily a preposition.

"Might;" imperfect tense, *indicative* mood, of the verb "may." (185)

"Were;" (9th proposition) imperfect tense, subjunctive mood. (190)

(194.) "Which;" relation, "make which (to be;)" an interrogative pronoun, objective case, third person, singular number, neuter gender, partly the object of "make" and partly subject to, "to be," (understood.) These interrogative pronouns are properly adjectives, referring to some noun understood, and very often expressed. Thus, speaking of two books, we say, "which will you have?" or "Which book will you have?" and in either case "which book" is meant; thus, these interrogative words, in being joined to nouns, possess the distinctive quality which marks the adjective. In the example before us, "which" refers to "case" understood.

"Choice;" relation, "which choice;" choice is the objective case after "to be," because there is an objective before it.

(195.) "Ah! that at least, confirmed in this sad persua-
"sion, I might have tasted the heart-rending pleasure of
"bestowing upon my departing child the last earthly en-
"dearments! but, tranquilly composed, and softly slum-
"bering as he looked, I feared to disturb a repose on
"which I founded my only remaining hopes."

The first part of this sentence is an expression of des-

pairing regret, like the following, namely, "oh that I had done so," and others of a similar nature. In all these there is an ellipsis, as "oh! would (or I wish) that I had done so." Thus in all these sentences, which partake of the nature of sorrowful ejaculations or exclamations, the principal proposition is understood, and the expressed proposition is the object of the verb of the principal. In the example before us, then, the propositions are as follows:—

1st. "Ah! I wish," (understood) principal,—subject, "I;" predicate "wish."

2nd. "That at least, confirmed in this sad persuasion, I might have tasted the heart-rending pleasure of bestowing upon my departing child, the last earthly endearments!" Dependent coupled by the conjunction "that," to the preceding, and object of "wish." Subject, "I, confirmed in this sad persuasion," principal word (grammatical subject) "I," having one complement, "confirmed in this sad persuasion;" in this, the principal word is, "confirmed," &c.

The remainder of the proposition is the logical predicate; principal word, "might have tasted," (as one word) completed by "at least," and "the heart-rending pleasure of bestowing upon my departing child the last earthly endearments;" the principal word in this complement is "pleasure" having two complements, namely "heart-rending," and the remainder of the phrase; in the latter, "of," is the principal word, completed by "bestowing upon my departing child, the last earthly endearments." In this, "bestowing," is the principal word, having two complements, namely, "upon my departing child," and, "the last earthly endearments."

3rd. "But, (he being) tranquilly composed and softly slumbering, I feared to disturb a repose." Principal,—Subject, "I," predicate, "feared to disturb a repose, he, tranquilly composed and softly slumbering," principal word "feared," completed by "to disturb his repose," and the absolute phrase, "he, tranquilly composed and softly slumbering," in this phrase, "he," is the principal word

having two complements, the principal words in which are respectively "composed," and "slumbering."

4th. "As he looked," dependent, coupled by, "as," to the preceding and completing "so," understood before "composed," and "slumbering,"

5th. "On which I founded my only remaining hopes," dependent, coupled to the 3rd by "which," and completing the antecedent "repose." Subject, "I," predicate, the remainder, principal word in the predicate "founded," completed by, "on which," and "my only remaining hopes," principal word "hopes," having three complements, "my," "only," and "remaining."

(196.) "At," relation, "tasted at least," preposition showing the relation between "tasted," and "least."

"Confirmed;" relation, "I confirmed," a past passive participle qualifying "I."

"Might have tasted;" (as one word) active transitive verb, pluperfect tense, potential mood, first person, singular number, of the verb, "to taste," having I for its subject. Parsed separately; "might," is the imperfect tense, indicative mood, of the transitive verb "may;" "have," a verbal noun (infinitive mood,) object of "might;" tasted, a verbal noun (106) object of "have."

"Bestowing;" relation, "of bestowing;" a verbal noun, objective case governed by, "of."—As "bestowing," is part of the transitive verb "to bestow," it will take an object after it, (108); this object is the word "endearments," the objective case governed by "bestowing."

The phrase, "(He) tranquilly composed and softly slumbering," is a nominative absolute, (158) hence, "he," is parsed, as a personal pronoun, nominative case, third person, singular number, nominative absolute—though it has no grammatical connection with any governing word, the phrase may be considered a complement of "feared," to which it is a complement of cause.

"Composed," and "slumbering," are verbal adjectives qualifying, "he," understood; the former a past passive participle and the latter a present participle, as commonly called.

"But;" the relation of "but," is, the two propositions; it is therefore a conjunction coupling them. "But," like "and," and "or," always couples like things; it differs from "and," in indicating a species of opposition, and should not be used otherwise; thus we say "this day is wet but warm;" "but," both couples the words "wet," and "warm," and denotes the species of opposition existing between them; when we say, "this day is wet yet warm," the adverb "yet," denotes the opposition while the coupling word, "and," is understood, the statement being "this day is wet, and *notwithstanding this circumstance*, warm," or "it is warm."

"To disturb;" relation, "feared to disturb," a verbal noun, object of "feared."

"On;" relation, "founded on which," preposition showing the grammatical connection between "founded," and "which."

"Only;" relation "hopes only," an adjective qualifying "hopes."

"Remaining;" relation, "remaining hopes," a verbal adjective qualifying "hopes."

(196.) "The foot of slave thy heather never stained,
"Nor rocks that battlement thy sons profaned."

Here the first proposition is obvious, namely,

"The foot of slave never stained thy heather."

Principal—Subject, "the foot of slave;" predicate, "stained never thy heather."

The meaning of the second line is doubtful, and this is often the case where words are used in different meanings as in the English language, without any change of termination; thus rocks may be a noun, or a verb, and this grammatical difference not being marked by any corresponding difference of termination, the sense and grammatical structure may be doubtful—the word "battlement," also though undoubtedly a noun, may be poetically used as a verb.—Without going into the question regarding the earlier origin of verbs or nouns, it may be remarked that nouns, originating as they do in the exercise of the organ of sight, probably the most constantly used, and the earliest

exercised, should be considered as preceding verbs, and hence, in instances where the same word is sometimes a noun and occasionally a verb, we may assume that it was originally a noun and was afterwards made use of to indicate some action in which the thing it named was an important agent. Thus the noun "ship," is commonly used as a verb, "we shipped a heavy sea."—"She loved him," or "she gave him her love." As the word, "battlement," means a protection, so it may be poetically used as a verb "to protect,"—the second line of the example may have either of two meanings, namely, "nor does that battlement rock which thy sons profaned" in allusion to the idea of the battlement rocking under the pressure of a violent storm—the other meaning must be given in connection with the first line, thus, "the foot of slave never stained thy heather nor profaned the rocks that battlement (or protect) thy sons."

The latter meaning is correct; the passage is descriptive of the utter absence of aught like slavery from the country in question indicated by its prominent physical characteristics of heather and rocks, and hence the obvious meaning is "the foot of slave never stained thy *heather* nor profaned thy rocks."

In a similar way doubtful passages, particularly in poetry, should be examined with reference to the context, poetic imagery, figures, &c.

(197.) "Battlement" is here used as a verb and its object is "sons."

"Nor" is both a conjunction and includes the negative adverb "not"; it is properly equivalent to "or not," as the corresponding word, "neither," to "not either"; thus these conjunctions, though they couple in grammatical position, separate in sense, and consequently take a verb in the singular number (appendix) as "either he or she *is* at home," "neither he nor she *is* at home." In these propositions, "he" and "she," are coupled by "or" and "nor" in each sentence; but they are also coupled by "either" and "neither," which thus respectively do the same duty, as "or" and "nor," and being introduced to

strengthen the expression, may be omitted without altering the sense, as, "he" or "she is at home." It may be shown in such instances that "either" and "neither" are really adjectives agreeing with some noun understood, as "neither person, he nor she, is at home," &c.

"Nor," though it contains the negative adverb, is not to be classed with the adverbial conjunctions (94) which are necessarily followed by dependent propositions in consequence of the nature of the adverbial modification which they indicate; whereas, "nor," in its conjunctive capacity is the same as, "or," and must couple like things, so that if there be a principal proposition before it, there must be one after it, &c.

"Both" corresponds to "and" in a similar way, as, "both he and she are at home," where "both" is introduced to increase the force of "and," and is doing the same duty, that is, it couples "he," and "she"; like "neither" and "either" it may be omitted without altering the sense, as "he and she are at home"; and it may also be shown to be an adjective, as "both persons, he and she, are at home." I have, however, called these words conjunctions instead of adjectives, because when they couple propositions instead of nouns, their actual use is more in accordance with such a course, as "he neither wrote nor returned," "he both wrote and returned," where "neither" and "both," doing the same duty as "nor" and "and," couple the two verbs. They can only be made adjectives here by explaining the passages thus; "he did both things, &c." "he did neither thing, &c." They are represented in some other languages, Latin for instance, by conjunctions.

(198.) "Although it be true, that in the lower strata "there is a large proportion of the remains of animals "which possess an apparently simple structure, nothing "can be more unsound than to found upon such observa-"tions a doctrine such as we have before stated."

1st Proposition—"Although it be true"—dependent, coupled by although to the fourth, and complement of "can be"—subject "it"; predicate, "be true."

2nd. "That in the lower strata there is a large proportion of the remains of animals." Dependent, coupled by "that" to the first, and subject of "be" in the first, where it is represented by, "it,"—subject, "a large proportion of the remains of animals"—predicate, "there is in the lower strata." Principal word in the subject, "proportion," having two complements—principal word in the predicate, "is," having two complements "there" (182) and "in the lower strata."

3rd. "Which possess an apparently simple structure." Dependent, coupled by "which," to the preceding, and completing the antecedent, "animals"—subject, "which"; predicate, "possess an apparently simple structure."

4th. "Nothing can be more unsound," principal—subject "nothing"; predicate, "can be more unsound."

5th. "Than to found upon such observations such a doctrine (is unsound)." Dependent, coupled by, "than" to the preceding, and complement of comparison to "more"—subject, "to found such a doctrine upon such observations"; predicate, "is unsound" (understood). In the subject, the principal word (grammatical subject) is "to found," having two complements, namely, "such a doctrine," and "upon such observations." The word "such" before observations requires a complement after it (145) as, for instance, "observations such *as I have alluded to;*"—this complement, though absolutely necessary to the sense, is not always expressed, being usually sufficiently obvious from the context.

6th. "As (that doctrine is)." Dependent, coupled by "as" to the preceding and completing "such" (145).

7th. "(Which) we have before stated." Dependent, coupled by, "which," to the preceding and completing the antecedent "doctrine"—subject, "we"; predicate, "have before stated which."

"It," introduced only for convenience, stands for the second proposition, and is parsed as in apposition with it and subject to "be."

"Be," is the subjunctive mood of the verb "to be." This form is irregular, (appendix,) and the verb itself seems to be extremely irregular in many languages.

"In," relation "is in strata"—the parsing is evident.

"There," expletive adverb modifying "is."

"Can be;" as one word, present tense, potential mood of the verb "to be;" as two words, "can," is the present tense, *indicative* mood, &c.; and "be," a verbal noun (infinitive mood) object of, "can."

"To found;" relation, "to found (is);" a verbal noun, subject of "is" understood.

In the 4th and 5th propositions, it is evident from the use of the word "more" in the former, that two things are compared; these things are, "nothing," and "the act of founding" (to found) which are compared as regards the quality of unsoundness.

"Such;" relation, "such doctrine;" an adjective qualifying "doctrine."

"As," adverbial conjunction coupling the two propositions.

"Before;" relation, "stated before (this time)" a preposition showing the grammatical connection between "stated" and "time" understood. "Before this time" is an adverbial phrase, hence the word "before," often used without the remainder being expressed is improperly called an adverb.

(199.) "Still as I view each well known scene,
"Think what is now, and what has been,
"Seems as to me of all bereft,
"Sole friends thy woods and streams were left;
"And thus I love thee better still,
"Even in extremity of ill."

The general sense of this passage is sufficiently evident, but the analysis of it is by no means clear, in consequence of the manner in which the poet has mixed up propositions and displaced complements, chiefly on account of the requirements of the metre and the rhyme.

1st Proposition. "Still (it) seems." Principal—subject, "it," understood; predicate, "seems still."

2nd. "As I view each well known scene." Dependent, coupled by "as" to the first, and complement of time to

"seems." Subject, "I," predicate, "view each well known scene."

3rd. "(As I) think of that and of that." (Each of the words "that" is taken out of "what" equivalent to "that which.") Dependent coupled by "and" understood, to the preceding, and by "as" understood, to the first; complement of time to "seems." Subject "I;" predicate, "think of that and of that."

4th. "Which is now."—Dependent, coupled by which to the preceding and complement of the first "that," the antecedent.—Subject, "which," predicate, "is now."

5th. "Which hath been."—Dependent, coupled by "which" to the third proposition, complement of the antecedent, the second "that."—Subject, "which;" predicate, "hath been."—"Which" in the fourth and fifth propositions is taken out of "what."

6th. "As (it would seem) to me bereft of all."—Dependent, coupled by "as," to the first, and complement of manner to "seems."—Subject, "it;" predicate, "would seem to me bereft of all." "Would seem" has one complement, the principal word of which is "to" completed by "me bereft of all."

7th. (That) thy woods and streams were left, sole friends."—Dependent, coupled by "that" to the first, and the real subject to "seems" the verb of the first proposition; it is represented in the first proposition by "it;" this is a mere convenience to prevent the awkwardness of placing a long proposition before a verb as its subject; the actual connection is "that thy woods and streams were left sole friends, seems still," &c.—Subject, "thy woods and streams;" predicate, "were left sole friends." Strictly speaking only the verb "to be" attributes a quality to a subject, as "they are good;" but many other verbs to some extent discharge the same duty and indicate some action besides, as in the example or in such phrases, as, "they became good."

8th. "And thus, I love thee better still,
Even in extremity of ill."—

Principal, coupled by "and" to the first.—Subject, "I, even in extremity of ill;" predicate, "love thee better still."—The use of the comparative degree "better" indicates a comparison between two things; but, as the second of them is not expressed, to complete the full sense the ellipsis would be filled up according to the meaning, and the full sentence would be "and thus even in extremity of ill, I love thee better still than *I ever did before.*"

(200.) "Still;" relation, "seems still;" an adverb of time modifying "seems."

"Is" (4th proposition) is here a verb-adjective (41) because it denotes existence and does not perform its usual duty of attaching an attribute to a subject.

"Hath been," (5th proposition) is also a verb-adjective (41) for the reason assigned in the foregoing paragraph. Parsed separately, "Hath" is the present tense of the verb "to have," and "been" a verbal noun, its object.

"Of," (6th proposition) relation, "bereft of all;" a preposition showing the grammatical connection between "bereft," and all (things).

"All" is so frequently used without the noun to which it belongs, that it assumes the appearance of a pronoun; it always, however, refers to some noun expressed or understood, and does not *stand* for a noun;—it is therefore an adjective, as in the example. The same observation applies to "each," "every," "other," and some similar words.

"Bereft;" relation, "me bereft;" a verbal adjective (past passive participle) qualifying "me."

(201.) "Friends;" relation, "woods and streams, friends;" common noun, nominative case, third person, plural number, neuter gender, nominative after "were left;" verbs, the noun *after* which, is another name for the noun before them, take the same case after them as before them; they do not, however, govern that case; it is regulated not by the verb, but by the case of the noun before it, hence the relation of "friends" is as given above.

"Were left;" relation, "woods and streams were left;"

a passive verb, imperfect tense, indicative mood, third person, plural number, having "woods and streams" for its subject.—Observe, it is passive because the subject is enduring (36) and consisting of the corresponding part of the verb "to be," (were) and the past passive participle of the verb "to leave." "Left" considered separately would be parsed accordingly.

"Thus;" relation, "love thus;" an adverb modifying "love."

"Thy;" relation, "woods thy." This word may be parsed in two ways, as the possessive case of the personal pronoun, "Thou," governed by "woods," or, as a possessive pronominal adjective, qualifying "woods." In languages marked by numerous inflections, the idea represented by "thy," is expressed in both the above ways, (see the Latin).

"Still;" (8th proposition) relation, "better still:" an adverb modifying "better;" the adverb "still," sometimes refers to time as in the first proposition; and sometimes to degree of quantity, as in the 8th.

"Better;" relation, "love better;" an adverb modifying "love;" better is properly an adjective, but as there is no corresponding adverb, it is used in an adverbial capacity, and like many other words, by no means in its original meaning.

(202.) "Even." It is often very difficult to parse this word, because its relation is not readily perceptible. In the present instance the phrase, "in extremity of ill," is a sort of complement of place referring to "I;" but a complement of place must from its very nature belong to some word expressive of "being," or "doing," hence the word "being," is understood after "I," and the relation of "even" is "being even;" it is an adverb modifying "being" understood, the whole phrase is "I (being) even in extremity of ill."

"Ill;" relation, "of ill;" a noun in the objective case governed by "of;" or more properly, an adverb used as a noun. "He looked very ill," "He acted ill," "He behaved ill," &c.;—in all these examples "ill" is an adverb;

"He seems ill," "He is ill;" in these propositions, "ill" may be classed as an adjective qualifying "he;" though even here it is doubtful; after "seems," "to be" is understood, and the examples may be taken as meaning, "He seems to be (to exist) in a bad state," or "He is in a bad condition."

(203.) "They heard, and were abashed, and up they sprung
"Upon the wing; as when men wont to watch
"On duty, sleeping found by whom they dread,
"Rouse and bestir themselves ere well awake."

1st Proposition.—"They heard"—Principal—subject "They;" predicate "heard."

2nd. "(They) were abashed"—Principal coupled by "and," to the first—subject, "They;" predicate "were abashed."

3rd. "Up they sprung upon the wing"—Principal, coupled by "and" to the preceding—Subject, "They;" predicate, "sprung up upon the wing." The adverbial conjunction "as," couples some proposition understood to the preceding, a complement either of time or manner, such being the nature of "as," in its adverbial capacity; the 4th proposition may therefore be supplied somewhat as follows:—

4th. "As the case usually is,"—Dependent coupled by as to the preceding, and complement of manner to "sprung up."

5th. "When men wont to watch on duty, sleeping found by (some person) rouse themselves"—Dependent, coupled by "when," to the preceding, and complement of time to "is," in the preceding proposition—Subject, "men wont to watch on duty, found sleeping by (some person);"—predicate, "rouse themselves." In the subject "men" is the principal word, completed by "wont to watch on duty," one complement; "found by some person," this is another complement; "sleeping," a third complement. The quality expressed by the word "sleeping," obviously belongs to "men," and is in some measure attributed to this latter word by the passive participle "found"—(199. 7th proposition).

6th. "Men," &c., (same subject as in the 5th) "bestir themselves"—Dependent, coupled by "and" to the 5th, and by "when" understood, to the 4th, and complement of time to "is" in the 4th proposition.

7th. "Whom they dread."—Dependent, coupled by "whom," to the 5th, and completing the antecedent "person" understood.

8th. "Ere (they are) well awake."—Dependent, coupled by "ere," to the 7th, and complement of time to "bestir," as also to "rouse."

"Abashed;" relation, "they abashed;" an adjective, qualifying "they."

"Up;" relation, "sprung up;" an adverb, modifying "sprung." This is parsing it separately; but properly "sprung up" should be treated as one word. (175).

"Wont;" relation, "men wont;" an adjective, qualifying "men." This word is to some extent participial, with the meaning "accustomed;" we have also "wonted," in a nearly similar sense, save that the former is applied usually to the person as in the example, and the latter to the thing, as "they pursued their wonted course," "they were wont to pursue this course."

"To watch," completes "wont," and the phrase is "wont (or accustomed) to watching." "To," is a preposition showing the grammatical connection between "wont" and "watch." "Watch" is a verbal noun governed by "to."

"On," shows the relation between "watch" and "duty;" if the punctuation were altered and the comma placed after "watch," the connection would be "found sleeping on duty," that is, at their post; a stronger sense.

"Sleeping;" relation, "men sleeping;" a verbal adjective (present participle), qualifying "men."

"Found;" relation, "men found;" a verbal adjective (past passive participle), qualifying "men."

"Whom"; relation, "dread whom"; a relative pronoun, third person singular number, masculine gender, objective case governed by "dread." In the words "found by whom they dread," the antecedent of "whom" not being expressed gives the pronoun a more indefinite and

general force, as thus, "found by any one whatever whom they dread."

"Ere"; relation, the two propositions; an adverbial conjunction coupling the two propositions, as given in the analysis. It is equivalent to "before the time, at which;" wherein "before the time" belongs to the former, and "at which," to the latter proposition.

(204) * * * "They but now who seemed
"In bigness to surpass Earth's giant sons,
"Now less than smallest dwarfs, in narrow room
"Throng numberless, like that Pigmean race
"Beyond the Indian mount; or faery elves,
"Whose midnight revels, by a forest side
"Or fountain, some belated peasant sees,
"Or dreams he sees, while overhead the moon
"Sits arbitress, and nearer to the earth
"Wheels her pale course; they, on their mirth and dance
"Intent, with jocund music charm his ear;
"At once with joy and fear his heart rebounds."

1st Proposition.—"They now less, in narrow room, "throng numberless, like that Pigmean race beyond the "Indian mount, or (like) faery elves," Principal—Sub-"ject, "They now less, numberless, like that Pigmean race "beyond the Indian mount, or like faery elves;" predicate "throng in narrow room." In the subject "they," is the principal word, completed by "(being) now less," one complement; "numberless" another complement; "like (to) that Pigmean race beyond the Indian mount," another; "(like to) faery elves," is another complement. In the predicate, "throng," is the principal word, completed by "in narrow room." In this proposition, the words from "numberless" to "elves" inclusive may be taken as part of the predicate (199. 7th proposition.)

2nd. "But now who seemed in bigness to surpass earth's giant sons." Dependent, coupled by "who" to the preceding and completing the antecedent "they." Subject, "who;" predicate, "seemed but now in bigness to surpass earth's giant sons." In the predicate "seemed" is

the principal word completed by "but now," one complement ; and to surpass "in bigness earth's giant sons," another ;—in the former complement "now" is the principal word ; and in latter "to surpass," having two complements, &c.

3rd. "Than smallest dwarfs (are little.)" Dependent coupled by "than," to the first, and completing "less."

4th. "Whose midnight revels by a forest side or fountain, some belated peasant sees," dependent, coupled by, "whose," to the first, and completing the antecedent. Subject, "some belated peasant ;" predicate, "sees whose midnight revels by a forest side or fountain." In the subject "peasant" is the principal word, completed by "some" and "belated." In the predicate "sees" is the principal word, completed by "whose midnight revels" and "by a forest side or fountain." In the former complement, "revels" is the principal word, completed by "whose," and "midnight ;" in the latter "by" is the principal word, completed by, "a forest side or fountain :" in this, "side" and "fountain" are the principal words ;—or this complement of place may be divided into two on account of the conjunction "or," thus, "by a forest side," and "by a fountain."

5th. "(Some belated peasant) dreams." Dependent coupled by "or" to the preceding. Subject, "some belated peasant ;" predicate, "dreams." "Dreams" has a complement after it, but that complement is a separate proposition and therefore in analysis must be taken separately.

6th. "(That) he sees." Dependent coupled, by "that" to the preceding and object of "dreams." The object of "sees" is "whose midnight revels," understood.

7th. While over-head the moon sits arbitress." Dependent coupled by "while" to the fifth and sixth, and completing "sees" and "dreams." Subject, "the moon arbitress," predicate "sits over head." In the subject, "moon" is the principal word, completed by "arbitress" —in the predicate, "sits" is the principal word, completed by "over-head," as before stated (199) the word "sits," in some degree attributes "arbitress" to "moon."

8th. "(While she) nearer to the earth wheels her course." Dependent, coupled by "and," to the preceding, and by "while," (understood) to "sees." Subject, "she nearer to the earth;" predicate, "wheels her pale course." In the subject "she" is the principal word, completed by "nearer to the earth;" in the predicate, "wheels," is the principal word, &c.

9th. "They, on their mirth and dance intent, with jocund music charm his ear." Dependent coupled by "and" to the preceding, and consequently having, "while," understood before it. Subject, "they on their mirth and dance intent;" predicate, "charm his ear with jocund music." In the subject, "they," is the principal word, completed by "intent on their mirth and dance;" in this "intent" is the principal word, &c. In the predicate, "charm," is the principal word, having two complements, "his ear," the object, and "with jocund music" the instrument.

10th. "At once with joy and fear his heart rebounds." Dependent coupled by "and," understood to the preceding. Subject, "his heart;" predicate, "rebounds at once with joy and fear." In the predicate, "rebounds" is the principal word, having two complements, "at once," and "with joy and fear."

(206.) For the sake of simplicity, it has been assumed in the analysis that the 9th and 10th propositions are dependent, because "while" is understood before each of them, an assumption which may be adopted without much inaccuracy; as, however, the "faery elves" to whom the passage refers, are represented in the beginning of it by the pronoun "whose," it follows that "who" should be used for "they," in the 9th proposition, which of course, would render both it and the 10th dependent.

"But" (first line) relation, "now but;" an adverb modifying "now." "But" is here used in the sense of "only," and is frequently so applied; "I have *only* one book," or "I have *but* one book."

(207.) "To surpass;" relation "seemed to surpass," a verbal noun (infinitive mood) object of seemed, which is a

transitive verb but always has a verbal noun for its object. "He seems an excellent man;" here "man" is not the object of "seems," but the nominative after "to be" understood, because there is a nominative, "he," before it, and the object of "seems" is the verbal noun "to be."

"Now" (3rd line) relation, "(being) now;" an adverb modifying "being," understood. "Now" refers to the modification, time, and this modification, can, from its nature, belong only to some word indicating the idea of some sort of action or being, hence the relation of now, in this instance, must be, "being now," as given above.

"Less;" relation, "they less;" an adjective qualifying, "they."

(208.) "Dwarfs;" relation, "dwarfs (are)," a common noun, third person, &c., nominative case subject to "are" understood. The comparative degree "less" indicates that two things are compared with reference to some quality; the things are, "they," and, "dwarfs," and the quality is size, or rather "littleness," hence the full proposition is, "than dwarfs are little."

"In;" relation, "throng in room," a preposition showing the grammatical connection between "throng" and "room."

(209.) "Room;" the parsing is obvious; it affords, moreover, a remarkable and very familiar instance of the power of usage in altering the meaning of words: a room is a space enclosed in a house between walls and a roof, and as its convenience is usually dependent upon the accommodation it offers on account of the *space* it contains, it is frequently substituted for the word "space." This effect of usage is very common.

"Numberless;" relation, "they numberless;" an adjective qualifying, "they."

(210.) "Like;" relation, "they like;" an adjective qualifying, "they;" the quality of likeness or similarity here spoken of, evidently exists in the individuals designated by the word "they," hence "like," for which the word "similar," might be used here, and very often elsewhere, is an adjective qualifying "they." From the fact

of the preposition after it being frequently suppressed, "like" is by some considered a preposition; but wherever it is used, it must have a preposition after it expressed or understood, because it expresses a quality which can not exist in any object but by comparison or in relation with another, hence there must be a word to express that relation; this word is the preposition "to" or "unto," which is indeed often expressed. In the common phrase, "in like manner," like is clearly an adjective, though if the words were arranged in another order it would be as well entitled to be called a preposition as elsewhere. The phrase means "in a manner like (some other manner)," already mentioned. "Like" is often used as an adverb.

"Race;" relation "(to) race;" a common noun, third person singular number, objective case, governed by "to" understood. "Race" and various similar words, each considered as one collection of individuals, are to be considered as of the neuter gender, even though the individuals may be masculine or feminine.

(211.) "Beyond"—To ascertain the relation of this word, it must be observed that the phrase it begins is a complement of place, and must consequently belong to some word indicating "action" or "being," hence "existing" is understood after race, and the relation is "existing beyond mount;" it is therefore a preposition, &c.

"Or;" relation, "race or elves;" a conjunction, coupling "race" and "elves." It may also be considered as coupling "like," expressed in the 4th line, to "like," understood before "faery elves."

"Whose;" relation, "revels whose;" a relative pronoun, third person, plural number, masculine gender, and possessive case, governed by "revels;" it stands for "elves."

"Midnight;" relation, "revels midnight;" an adjective, qualifying "revels." It is properly a noun, but is here used as an adjective, a very common practice: "a *gold* cup," "a *silver* goblet," "the *south* pole," &c.

"By;" relation, "sees by side or fountain;" a prepo-

sition, showing the grammatical connection between "sees," and "side," or "fountain." If the comma after "revels" in the example were removed, and indeed even as it stands, the phrase, "by forest side or fountain;" may be taken as a complement of place, to some word understood after "revels;" thus "revels *carried on* by," &c.

(212.) "Over-head;" relation, "sits over-head;" an adverb modifying "sits." "Over-head," is here written as one word; properly "over head" are two words, a preposition and noun, constituting an adverbial phrase, a complement of place to sits; but every adverbial phrase when written as one word, becomes a single part of speech, that is, an adverb. Thus, "I saw him when I went home," contains two propositions, the latter of which is an adverbial phrase, telling, the time of "saw," and if it were written thus, "when-I-went-home," that is, as one word, it would be an adverb.

"Arbitress;" relation, "moon arbitress;" a common noun, third person, singular number, feminine gender, nominative case, in apposition with "moon." (199).

"Nearer;" relation, "she nearer;" an adjective qualifying "she." The relation might be "course nearer," without violating the sense; either view would be better than calling "nearer" an adverb, modifying "wheels." "Near," is often used without expressing the preposition after it, as "near the house," "near the city," &c.; hence it has been parsed very incorrectly as a preposition, which is in reality always expressed or understood after it. In the example the preposition is expressed.

"On;" relation, "intent on mirth and dance;" a preposition, showing the grammatical connection between "intent," and "mirth."

"Intent;" relation, "they, intent;" an adjective, qualifying "they."

"With;" relation, "charm with music:" a preposition, showing the grammatical connection between "charm" and "music."

"At once;" if written "at-once," that is, as one word, it would be an adverb, modifying "rebounds;" but taken

as two words, the phrase consists of a preposition and adverb used as a noun. (176).

"With;" relation, "rebounds with joy;" the parsing is obvious.

(213.) "Its walls are described by heathen historians, "as having been one hundred feet in height, and sixty "miles in circuit, fortified by fifteen hundred towers, each "two hundred feet high."

1st. Proposition. "Its walls are described by heathen historians," principal—subject, "its walls;" predicate "are described by heathen historians."

2nd. "As (walls) having been one hundred feet in "height, and sixty miles in circuit, fortified by fifteen "hundred towers, each two hundred feet high, (would be "described)." Dependent, coupled by "as" to the preceding and complement of manner, to "described." Subject, "walls having been (of the measure of) one hundred "feet in height, and (of the measure of) sixty miles in cir-"cuit, fortified by fifteen hundred towers, each (being) two "hundred feet high;" predicate, "(would be described)."

Principal word of the subject, "walls" (understood,) having two complements, the first of which is, "having "been (of the measure of) one hundred feet in height, "and (of the measure of) sixty miles in circuit;" second complement, "(having been) fortified by fifteen hundred "towers, each two hundred feet high." In the former, "having been," is the principal word, completed by "(of the measure of) one hundred feet," that is one complement; "in height," that is another; "(of the measure of) sixty miles," that is another; and "in circuit," is another. In the complements "of the measure of one hundred feet," "in height," &c., the prepositions are the principal words, and they are analysed as in former similar examples.

In the second complement of "walls" "having been fortified," (taken together) is the principal word, having one complement, "by fifteen hundred towers, each two hundred feet high." In this, "by" is the principal word, completed by the remainder, of which, "hundred," is the

principal word, completed by "fifteen," and "(of) towers." The phrase "each (tower being) two hundred feet high," is an absolute construction, unconnected by any grammatical government with the rest of the sentence, but being in sense a complement of "towers;" the principal word in this phrase is "tower," understood, completed by "each," and "two hundred feet high;" in this latter, "high" is the principal word, completed by "(by) two hundred (of) feet;" in this, the principal word is "by," completed by "two hundred of feet," in which the principal word is "hundred," completed by "two" and "of feet," &c.

(214.) The use of the conjunction "as," in this sentence, requires a slight notice. In the first proposition, strictly speaking, "so," is understood as indicating the manner of "described;" but "so" may refer to *any* manner, hence it must be explained by a comparison with some other manner already alluded to, or explained in the following proposition; this connection of comparison is expressed by the adverbial conjunction, "as," and the proposition beginning therewith, accurately considered, completes "so," and thus, as "so" is often omitted, the latter proposition is usually considered as a complement of manner to the verb which "so" completes. Thus, "he acted so as to be successful," fully expressed is, "he acted so as he should act to be successful." "He did as he was desired." "He did how?" the answer is, "so;" and the following proposition beginning with "as," explains the manner indicated by "so." "They speak of him as an honest man;" that is "as an honest man would be spoken of;" or "as they would speak of an honest man."

In the parsing, "having been," (taken as one word) is the past participle of "to be," qualifying "walls;" this participle is here a verbal adjective. These words may be parsed separately as already described; "having," being a verbal adjective, qualifying "walls;" and "been," a verbal noun, object of "having." (106).

The verb "to be," unless when it means "to exist," must from its very nature have after it, some word indi-

cating, what is asserted of the subject, hence, when we say (speaking of walls) having been one hundred feet in height, we mean, "having been *walls* of one hundred feet," &c., or, "of the measure of," &c.

(215.) "Hundred;" "of hundred;" a noun, objective case, third person, singular number, neuter gender, governed by "of." It is evidently a noun, being the name of a collection of units or tens, and the adjective one agrees with it, showing that it is singular. So also with thousands, millions, &c.; thus we say, "one thousand," "two thousands," &c.

"Feet" is governed in the objective case by "of," understood, as is usually the case; the preposition, however, is frequently expressed, as "hundreds *of men* were slain;" "tens *of thousands.*"

"Sixty miles" is governed in the same way as "one hundred feet;" "sixty," however, is an adjective, qualifying "miles;" if the words "six tens of miles" were used, the expression would exactly correspond to "one hundred of feet," "six" being an adjective, and "tens" a noun.

"Fortified;" relation, "walls fortified;" verbal adjective, (past passive participle) qualifying "walls." If "having been fortified," be taken together as one word, it will be the compound form of the past passive participle, of the verb "to fortify;" this form is sometimes called the perfect participle, from the introduction of the auxiliary "have," a sign of the perfect tense.

"Fifteen hundred towers," is parsed as already explained, taking "hundred" as a noun used for "hundreds;" but "fifteen hundred," written as one word, is an adjective. "Each two hundred feet high," fully expressed, is "each tower being high by two hundred feet." Here "tower" is the absolute case, and is qualified by the verbal adjective, "being," and the adjective "high;" "each" is also an adjective qualifying "tower." "Two hundred (of) feet;" the phrase indicating measurement or dimension, is governed by the preposition expressed or understood. "This house is ten feet higher than that;"

hat is, "higher by ten feet;" and so of other similar phrases.

CHAPTER XIV.

SYNONYMOUS WORDS.—CHANGES OF CONSTRUCTION.—FROM ACTIVE TO PASSIVE.—FROM PROPOSITIONS TO DEPENDENT PHRASES.—DIFFERENT KINDS OF PROPOSITIONS CHANGED INTO DIFFERENT KINDS OF PHRASES.—ABSOLUTE PHRASES.—CHANGES IN PROPOSITIONS BEGINNING WITH THE CONJUNCTION "THAT."—ADVERBS AND ADVERBIAL PHRASES.—IRREGULAR CHANGES OF CONSTRUCTION.

(216.) In a copious language it usually happens that very many ideas may be each expressed by more than one word, thus several words may represent nearly the same idea, and consequently, as the same or nearly the same idea may be represented by different words, so the same sentiment may be announced, or the same assertion made by different words. It will be found on careful examination that these words, apparently similar in meaning, nevertheless possess slight shades of difference, if not in meaning, at least in application; thus we have, "large," "big," and "great," with nearly the same meaning in English, and so of "small" and "little." This is found to be the case to a greater or less extent in most languages, and the selection of precisely suitable words will depend on the knowledge of the language possessed by the writer, and constitutes an important element in forming a correct style.

(217.) Besides this use of synonymous words, however, the same idea or sentiment may be conveyed by means of the same words variously inflected, with certain changes of grammatical construction. Though the general sense may thus be sufficiently communicated, certain constructions, theoretically correct according to the general principles of the philosophy of grammar, are inadmissible by the fashion and usage of a particular language whose style has been regulated by acknowledged standards. The principal

changes of grammatical construction dependent in a great measure on the philosophy of grammar, and consequently observable in many languages, but especially in English, may be readily explained, premising that the sense of the passage must be preserved as accurately as possible in every change.

Wherever a word expressing transitive action is made use of it must be followed by a word receiving that action (an object). This object is an important word in the proposition; it is necessarily the name of a thing more or less specially spoken of, hence it can be made the subject (110) of the proposition, that is, the verb may be expressed in the passive voice (36). To preserve the sense, the same thing must be represented as *doing* the action, in both forms of construction; and similarly, the same thing must be represented as *enduring* the action in both forms of construction; but in the active voice, the subject is *doing*, (36) hence the name; and in the passive, the subject is *enduring;* that word therefore of the active construction which was enduring the action must become the subject of the passive form,—and the subject, (doer or *agent)* in the active will become in the passive some species of objective governed by a preposition indicating the relation of agency; the verb also must undergo such change of form as may be used in the language to express the action applied to a subject *enduring* the action. If no such form (passive voice) exists in the dialect, the change in question cannot be effected.

Thus, in the example "John killed William;" "John" is the agent or doer, and "William" the recipient of the action, or the object; and to alter the construction to the passive voice, it must be made the subject, the verb must be inflected or otherwise altered accordingly, and the agent placed in the objective case governed by a suitable preposition. The proposition will therefore be, "William was killed by John." The rule therefore for this change of construction, namely, from active to passive, is, to "make the object of the active the subject of the passive, and the subject of the active, the objective case governed by "by"

in the passive;" (or by some similar preposition in other languages). The passive voice is more especially used, when we wish to make the expression as indefinite as possible, which is done by not expressing the agent; as "We are all wonderfully made;" here the agent is not expressed, but in the active sentence it must be. The opposite change, namely, from passive to active is effected by a reversed procedure; "the objective case in the passive becomes the subject of the active, and the subject of the passive becomes the object of the active"—as, "It is believed by all," becomes in the active, "All believe it." "It is not given to man to foresee the future;" in this passive sentence the agent is not expressed; to render the proposition in the active voice we must first supply the agent according to the sense; thus, "It is not given to man by Providence to foresee the future; the active of which will be according to the rule, "Providence does not give to man to foresee the future." "It" is only introduced for convenience' sake and is not required, and therefore need not be used in the active sentence.

(218.) The next most common change of construction is that whereby the sense of dependent propositions (or occasionally of principal propositions) is represented by phrases which are not propositions. All propositions in the same sentence being connected in sense (90) must be connected also by words, and if any of them ceases to be a proposition, the coupling word ceases of course to be necessary, hence in such changes it must always be omitted. Again as the clause ceases to be a proposition, the verb of it must assume some other shape, still indicating, however, the idea of action; that is, it must become a participle or an infinitive mood; to change, therefore, a proposition into some other form (preserving the sense) the connecting word (conjunction or relative pronoun) must be omitted. One of the simplest instances of this change is from a proposition beginning with a relative pronoun; such a proposition always completes the antecedent, it does the duty of an adjective, and consequently must still be an adjectival phrase when changed, that is, the verb must

become a participle qualifying the antecedent of the relative.

In the sentence, "The bridge, which was built across the river, was destroyed," the dependent proposition completes "bridge," and if the connecting word, "which," be omitted, the verb "was built" becomes the past passive participle, "built," and the sentence contains, instead of two, only one proposition; thus, "the bridge built across the river was destroyed."

(219.) "The bridge, which the enemy had destroyed, was rebuilt;" here the dependent proposition completes "bridge;" therefore when we omit "which," the verb of that proposition is to become a participle qualifying "bridge;" thus, "The bridge destroyed by the enemy was rebuilt." Though the verb "had destroyed" is *active*, nevertheless we must use a *passive* participle, because in the original example the word "bridge" (represented by "which") is enduring the action of destroying, and to preserve the sense a *passive* participle of "to destroy" must be used. Of course the opposite change may be made in the participial phrase by introducing the relative pronoun and changing the participle into a verb; thus in the sentence, "The bridge destroyed by the enemy was rebuilt;" the participial phrase, "destroyed by the enemy," may be expressed, by introducing the relative pronoun, "The bridge which the enemy had destroyed was rebuilt." "The statements made by him were found to be false," by applying the foregoing change, becomes, "The statements which he made were found to be false."

(220.) Propositions beginning with conjunctions may be similarly changed, though the precise nature of the change must always depend on the sense. "Alexander collected a large army, crossed the Hellespont and attacked the Persians." These three propositions are coupled by "and," but leaving it out, the whole will become one proposition, two of the verbs becoming participles; "Alexander having collected a large army and having crossed the Hellespont attacked the Persians."

Each of the above propositions is principal but a similar

change may be effected by applying the same principle where they are dependent; thus, "When Alexander had collected a large army and had crossed the Hellespont," &c., may be changed as above, "Alexander having collected and having crossed," &c. Sometimes one form of expression will be more convenient and sometimes another.

(221.) This change may be made in the same way when the proposition begins with an adverbial conjunction, when the verb of such proposition will become a participle completing whatever noun the sense requires. "When the enemy had broken down the bridge they retreated;" here by leaving out "when," and making the verb of the dependent proposition a participle, the sentence becomes, "the enemy having broken down the bridge retreated." In this example, the same word or a pronoun standing for it (enemy and they) is the subject of both the dependent and the principal proposition; hence, when the two propositions become one, the noun (enemy) becomes the sole subject, the participle qualifies it and the pronoun (they) being unnecessary disappears.

(222.) When the subjects of the dependent and principal propositions are different words, the participial phrase into which the dependent proposition is changed is usually an absolute construction. "When the enemy broke down the bridge the army advanced." The change here is, "the enemy having broken down the bridge;" or the passive form, "the bridge having been broken down by the enemy," &c. Both of these are absolute constructions; so that when the subjects of the two propositions are the same, the participle into which one of the verbs has been changed, will usually qualify the subject of the other; but when the verbs of the two propositions have different subjects, the participle will usually form part of an absolute construction.

(223.) The opposite changes can be effected by reversing the mode of procedure; that is participial phrases can be changed into propositions, by changing the participles into verbs and introducing the required connecting words. The particular connecting word to be introduced and the

kind of proposition to be formed will depend on the sense, more particularly on the nature of the modification expressed by the phrase, that is, on the kind of complement it is.

"The day being wet, I brought my umbrella." Here the participial phrase evidently expresses the cause, therefore the dependent proposition into which it will be changed must begin with an adverbial conjunction indicating the modification of cause; the change will be, "I brought my umbrella *because* the day was wet;" or "As the day was wet I brought my umbrella."

"The general being slain, his army was defeated." In this instance the modification expressed by the participial phrase is doubtful; it may be either the time, or the cause; hence the sentence when changed, will be, either "*When* "the general was slain, the army was defeated," or, "The "army was defeated *because* the general was slain."

"Alexander having collected an army and crossed the "Hellespont attacked the Persians at Granicus." Here we have two participles, "having collected" and "having crossed," hence we can effect several changes, namely, by making them the verbs of principal propositions coupled by "and," as "Alexander collected an army crossed the Hellespont *and* attacked the Persians;" again, by leaving the former unchanged and making the latter participle the verb of a principal proposition, or by changing the latter and leaving the former unaltered, we can effect a different change, as, "Alexander having collected an army crossed "the Hellespont and attacked the Persians;" or "Alexander collected an army and having crossed the Hellespont," &c.

Besides these, similar alterations may be effected by changing the participles into dependent propositions, as, "When Alexander had collected an army, he crossed the "Hellespont and attacked the Persians;" or making two dependent propositions thus, "When Alexander had col- "lected an army and had crossed the Hellespont, he "attacked the Persians."

Generally speaking, in these changes, that proposition which may be considered the result of the operations and

which expresses the most important fact, should be retained as principal. Thus in the example before us, the collecting the army and the crossing the Hellespont are merely preparatory steps leading to the important result of the attack: this last therefore is in all cases retained unchanged as a principal proposition.

(224.) There is a large class of propositions beginning with the conjunction, "that," wherein the change produced by omitting the conjunction is slightly different from the foregoing. Propositions beginning with the adverbial conjunctions are usually adverbial phrases, or if they can be written as one word, adverbs; (132) but propositions beginning with the conjunction "that," being chiefly (135) subjects, objects, or in apposition with nouns, if written each as one word, would be nouns; hence when changed, the verbs of such propositions, usually assume that form of the verb which is especially a noun, namely the infinitive mood, and thus in such propositions on leaving out the conjunction "that," the verb usually becomes an infinitive mood.

In the sentence, "I thought that he was an honest man," the dependent proposition is object of the verb "thought," and if "that," be omitted, the sentence will be, "I thought him to be an honest man," where the precise object is the verbal noun, "to be," and not the pronoun "him" as often considered.

"That they should pass away and be forgotten is the lot of most persons." Here the dependent propositions, "That they should pass away" and "that they should be forgotten," constitute the subject of the verb "is," and may be represented by infinitive phrases, as follows, "to pass away and be forgotten is the lot of most persons."

"The command, that they should return, was not obeyed." Here the dependent proposition "that they should return" is in apposition with "command," and by leaving out the conjunction the whole sentence may be rendered "The command to return, was not obeyed by them," where the verbal noun "to return" is in apposition with "command," being merely another name for it.

The opposite changes are effected by reversing the proceeding as in the former cases.

(225.) There is sometimes a slight variation in sense in these changes of construction, but in general that variation is not so great as to interfere materially with the obvious meaning of the passage.

In languages which admit of this and similar changes, it is not to be understood, that they may always be introduced with propriety;—in many cases the peculiar usage of the language will not permit it; for instance, the Latin language employs the absolute construction much more freely than the English; and in many cases the infinitive phrase is used by Latin authors (Cæsar especially) where the English would employ a dependent proposition. In the English itself numerous instances occur where the elements of these changes are present, but where the fashion or usage of the language (a very arbitrary authority) will not admit of the alteration being effected. These considerations must be viewed with reference to the style adopted by the standard writers of the language in question.

(226.) The foregoing are the principal changes of which propositions are susceptible and which are based on sufficiently general principles to admit of their being classed and described by special rules. Besides these, however, many others may be effected of a more irregular character, and of which examples merely can be given. They consist chiefly of phrases for single words, or the reverse; and of propositions for imperfect phrases, and the reverse.

(227.) For adverbs, adverbial phrases may be substituted, as "in a successful manner," for "successfully;" "to a great extent," or, "in a great degree," for "greatly;" "in reality," for "really." Instead of the phrase, "for the purpose of obtaining power" we may use the proposition, "that they might obtain power;" "Purchased as slaves, and introduced as soldiers" may be altered by using phrases instead of the adverbial conjunctions, "as," "Purchased *in the capacity* of slaves, and *introduced with* "*the view of* becoming soldiers." In this last instance,

however, the change is scarcely legitimate as it consists not merely of a change of construction, but in a great measure of the substitution of different words for those used in the original.

(228.) The following sentence may be altered so as to afford an example of most of the changes alluded to; that is, participles into dependent propositions or the reverse; passive verbs into active or the reverse; infinitive phrase to a dependent proposition or the reverse; and some of the more irregular changes above described.

"The most celebrated person mentioned in the book of "Numbers, is Joshua, the pious and upright minister of "Moses, and who, on the death of his master, was divinely "ordained to be the conductor of the Israelites into the "promised land of Canaan."

Here we have the participles "celebrated," "mentioned," and "promised," which may be changed into dependent propositions; "the pious and upright minister of Moses," being a complement of the noun, Joshua, may be expressed by a dependent proposition beginning with a relative pronoun; "on the death of his master," a complement of time may be changed into a proposition beginning with an adverbial conjunction; "was ordained," being a passive verb may be made active; and the infinitive "to be" may be changed into a dependent proposition; the verb of the same family also may be substituted for the noun "conductor." The above changes will run some what as follow:—

"The person who was most celebrated among those who "are mentioned in the book of Numbers, is Joshua, who "was the pious and upright minister of Moses, and whom, "when his master died, the Lord ordained, that he should "be the person, who should conduct the Israelites into the "land of Canaan which had been promised to them." Compare this changed sentence with the example as given, and it will be found to exhibit the indicated alterations and yet preserve the sense with tolerable exactness.

(229.) Some further changes may still be made; thus instead of the passive proposition "who are mentioned in

the book of Numbers," we may substitute the active, "Whom the inspired writer mentions in the book of Numbers." In passive propositions, the agent governed by the preposition "by" is very often not expressed; in such cases it must be supplied in the passive proposition in order to change it into the active.

In the same way the passive proposition, "which had been promised to them (by the Lord)" may be given in the active, namely, "which the Lord had promised to them."

Again the active proposition, "who should conduct the "Israelites into the land of Canaan," may be rendered in the passive, as, "by whom the Israelites should be conducted into the land of Canaan."

Changes effected by means of substitution of totally different words may or may not be changes of construction, and depend on considerations altogether different, having reference not to syntactical considerations so much as to the comparative meanings of words apparently similar.

APPENDIX

FOR THE USE OF THE

YOUNGER CLASSES IN SCHOOLS.

Grammar is both a science and an art. It is the science of language and the art of speaking and writing it with propriety.

It contains four great divisions; namely Orthography, Etymology, Syntax and Prosody.

Orthography treats of the forms and sounds of letters, and the correct method of spelling words.

Etymology treats of the derivation, classification and inflections of words.

Syntax treats of the proper arrangement of words in sentences.

Prosody treats of the accent and pronunciation of words, and the laws of versification.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Letters.

Written words are composed of letters which are therefore marks used in writing such words.

The English alphabet consists of twenty-six letters which are divided into Vowels, so called because they can be perfectly sounded by themselves, and Consonants, so called because they can be sounded only with the aid of a vowel.

The vowels are a, e, i, o, u, and w, and y, when they do not begin a word or syllable. All the other letters are consonants.

The letters may also be divided into mutes which cannot be sounded without the aid of a vowel, namely, b, p, d, t, k, q, and c, hard; and semivowels, which may be imperfectly sounded by themselves, namely, f, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, x, z, and c, and g,

soft; of these, four, l, m, n, r, are called liquids, because they readily unite with others in sound.

The consonants may be also conveniently divided according to the organs of speech chiefly used in their pronunciation.

	Soft	Sharp.	Aspirated.	Hissing.
Labials (with the lips)	b, m,	p,	f, v,	none.
Dentals (with the teeth)	d, s,	t,	none.	z.
Gutturals (with the nose, palate, and throat)	g, as gone n, r, and perhaps, l.	k, q, c hard,	none—or, j and g soft.	x.

Ps, if represented by one letter, would be the hissing labial. Similarly, *th*, would be the aspirated dental, and *ng* represented by one letter would be guttural.

Two vowels united so as to form one sound are called a Diphthong,—as *ou* in *loud*.

A Proper Diphthong is one in which a sound is produced different from that of either of the vowels singly. They are *oi*, *ou* and *au*. An Improper Diphthong is one wherein the sound of the two vowels is the same as that of one of them singly—as *oa* in *coat*.

A Triphthong consists of three vowels united into one sound —as *eau* in *beauty*.

In written language, different and larger characters are used in certain situations; they are called capitals, and are introduced under the following circumstances, namely: The first word of every sentence. The first word of a line of poetry. The first word of a quotation. The epithets of the Deity. Proper nouns and adjectives derived from them; as *Canada*, Canadian. Names of objects personified, as, *O Grave, refuge of the weary!*

The pronoun I, and the interjection O,—and in general any common nouns used for the time as proper nouns.

Syllables.

A syllable is a distinct sound which may consist of a single sound, or of several united in one, and is therefore pronounced by a single effort as, *a*, *an*, *man*. Each syllable must contain at least one vowel.

Words are either Monosyllables, consisting of *one* syllable, as *man;* or Dissyllables, *two* syllables, as, *pen-knife;* or Trisyllables, *three* syllables, as, *hap-pi-ly;* or Polysyllables, *many* syllables, as *con-tent-ed-ly*.

Words.

Words are *articulate sounds used as signs of our ideas.*

Words considered with reference to their origin, are Primitive, that is, incapable of being traced to a simpler form in the language, as *man;*—or, Derivative, that is, having some known source or origin from which they are formed, as, *beautiful*, *happiness*. They are also simple, not combined with any other word, as, *use*, *kind*—and compound, formed of two or more united together, as, *work-man*, *man-kind*.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology *treats of the derivation, classification and inflection of words.*

When the origin of a word is traced to another word in the same or some other dialect, it is said to be derived from that word, as, *manly* derived from *man*, *string* from the Latin *stringo*, I bind. This branch of the subject cannot be considered here. Inflection is exhibited in the changes words undergo to express different grammatical relations, as in the comparison of adjectives, and alterations in the termination of verbs to mark tenses and persons. As regards classification, there are various kinds of words which are called *parts of speech;* these are eight, namely, the Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition Conjunction and Interjection.

The Noun.

A Noun is the *name of any thing* as, *man*, *justice*, *goodness*.

N. B.—By the word thing is meant also person and place, as well as any thing of which we can form an idea.

As regards the application of nouns or names they are divided into Proper and Common. A proper noun is *that which can be applied to but one person, thing or place in the same sense*, as *London, William, Toronto, Canada.* A common noun is *that which can be applied to several persons, places or things in the same sense*, and is therefore the name of a class of things grouped together in right of possessing a common property (47).

Proper nouns become common when they are used to designate a number of individuals possessing the same name as, the, *Cæsars* of Rome, the *Napoleons* of France; or when used to designate all the individuals possessed of some remarkable quality, as a *Wellington*, a *Demosthenes.*

As regards the things of which they are names, nouns may be divided into real and abstract; real nouns are *the names of things actually existing in Nature*, as, *river, mountain, tree;* abstract nouns are names of qualities abstracted from all reference to the subjects in which they exist, as *justice, virtue, truth*, &c.

Diminutives express a *diminution* in the force of the words from which they are formed by the addition of certain syllables; as from hill, *hillock;* from stream, *streamlet;* from cod, *codling;* from man, *mannikin.*

Verbal nouns are *those which partake of the nature of verbs, and are the names of actions;* as "reading," "writing," "hunting," "*to read*," "*to write*," "*to hunt*," (43, 105, 106).

Number.

Number is *the distinction between one thing and more than one;* there are therefore two numbers, Singular, expressing one thing, as *house, dog, lion;* and Plural, expressing more than one, as *houses, dogs, lions.*

The *general* rule for forming the plural is by adding *s* to the singular, as in the above examples.

Particular rules— Where s cannot be sounded in connection with the final letters, as in words ending in s, x, sh, and ch, the plural is formed by adding *es*—as box, *boxes;* church, *churches;* —nouns in ch hard obey the general rule, as patriarch, *patriarchs.*

Nouns ending in y, change y into *ies*, as beauty, *beauties;* except when y is preceded by a vowel, when s is added, as chimney, *chimneys*, and in proper names as "Henry," "*Henrys.*"

Nouns ending in o after a consonant generally form the plural in *es* as "*potato*," "*potatoes*" ; except "canto," "grotto," "tyro," "portico," "junto," "solo," "quarto," "rotundo."

Most nouns ending in f or fe change their termination into *ves*, as "loaf" "*loaves*", "wife" "*wives*," "staff" "*staves*" ; but the compounds, "flagstaff," &c., merely add, s as "*flagstaffs.*"

The following nouns either alter the body of the word or add the old plural *en* from the Saxon.

Man	Men	Foot	Feet
Woman	Women	Tooth	Teeth
Ox	Oxen	Goose	Geese
Child	Children	Mouse	Mice

Some nouns have two plurals, regular and irregular with different meanings, as die, plural, *dies*, stamps for coining; and *dice*, square blocks used in games.

Some nouns have singular and plural alike, as *deer, sheep, salmon, apparatus, species.*

Some nouns have no plural, namely, proper names as, *Charles ;* names of metals, as, *lead, gold ;* names of qualities, as *goodness.*

Some nouns, being plural in their meaning or having a plural form only, are said to have no singular, as, *breeches, lungs, bellows, &c.* These are usually treated as plural words except *news* and *gallows* which are considered as singular, and *means*, which is treated in both ways, accordingly as it is meant to express one instrument or more than one ; as "many means *were* used" "one means *was* used." The names of sciences ending in *ics* are usually treated as plural, but not always. (See list at end.)

Nouns of multitude have a singular form but indicate a collection of inividuals, and hence are frequently looked upon as plural, as "*parliament*," "*congregation*" ; this occurs where any word is used indicating the individuals included in the noun of multitude, as, "The council, all in their robes, *were* assembled."

Nouns introduced from other languages without any change of form usually retain the plurals belonging to them in their ori-

ginal dialect, as "datum," "*data*," "stratum," "*strata*." (See list at end.)

Gender.

Gender *is the distinction of sex*. There are three genders; the names of male creatures as "*boy*," "*king*," "*man*," are said to be masculine. The names of female creatures, as "*girl*," "*queen*," "*woman*," are feminine;—and the names of things of neither sex as, "*table*," "*house*," "*chair*," are said to be of the *neither* gender, which is usually called *neuter*.

Some things are occasionally spoken of as persons, and though without life, are considered as of the masculine or sometimes of the feminine gender. Thus we call the Sun, "he" and the moon "she."

Insects, fishes, small quadrupeds and children are frequently spoken of as neuter.

Many masculine nouns form their feminines by making the word end in *ess* or *ix*; as "baron," "*baroness*," "executor," "*executrix*;" others express their feminine by a different word, as "brother," "*sister*;" "bull," "*cow*;" and others again by an additional word as "*he*-goat," "*she*-goat"—(See list at end.)

Case.

Case is *the position in which a noun falls with regard to some other word in the same proposition*.

There are three of these positions, that is, three cases; namely, the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

A noun is said to be in the Nominative case, *when it is the subject of a verb*, that is, when it answers the question, *Who?* or *What?* before the verb; as, "John" *builds*—Here "John" answers the question, "who builds?"

A noun may also be in the nominative case under three other circumstances. 1. When it is *the name of the person or thing spoken to*, as "*Charles*, come hither" "*Sun*, arise;" this is called the "Nominative of address." 2. After many verbs *when the noun after the verb is another name for the noun before it*, as, "Alexander was *king*." 3. A noun *having no grammatical dependence on any other word in the sentence* is said to be in the Nominatiue absolute; as, "the *day* being fine, I went out."

The Possessive case *indicates the possession of one thing by another thing*, and a noun in this case ends in s' (s with an apostrophe) as, "my *father's* house." N.B. In plural nouns the apostrophe is after the *s* as *Mechanics'* Institutes; and many words ending in the *letter* or the *sound* s, take the apostrophe only, omitting the s—as "*Moses'* death;" "*convenience'* sake."

When a noun is the name of the thing receiving the action, as the word *house* in the example "John builds the *house*;" or when it comes after a preposition, as, "by *name*," it is said to be in the Objective case; the Objective case is therefore found *after a Transitive verb or a Preposition.*

Person.

There are three persons; the name of the person *speaking*, is said to be the *first* person, as, *I* come; the name of the person or thing spoken *to*, is said to be the *second* person, as "*Charles*, come"; and the name of the person or thing *spoken of*; as "*Charles* comes," is the *third* person; these persons make no alteration in the termination of the noun.

The Adjective.

An adjective is *a word added to a noun to express a quality*;—as "a *good* man"; any word therefore found joined to a noun may be considered an adjective. When things are compared with reference to the same quality, the adjective expressing that quality is said to be in different degrees of comparison; of these, there are three, called the Positive, *which expresses the quality absolutely as*, "*rich men*;" the comparative, *which is used when two things are compared*, as, "this man is *richer* than that;" and the Superlative, *when three or more are compared*, as "this man is *richest* of all." In words of one and two syllables, the comparative is formed by making the positive end in, "*er*,' as "*rich, richer*;" and the superlative, by making the positive end in "*est*," as, "*richest*." In long words the degrees of comparison are expressed by the words "more" and "most," as "amiable," "*more* amiable;" "*most* amiable."

The Pronoun.

A Pronoun is *a word used instead of a noun to avoid the two*

frequent repetitions of the same word, as "I saw John, *he* was at home."

They are of several kinds:

Personal pronouns, so called because *they mark the persons*—They are:

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1st person	I,	We.
2nd "	Thou,	You.
3rd "	He, She, It,	They.

These change their forms to mark their cases

		Singular.	*Plural.*
1st.	Nominative	I,	We.
	Possessive	Mine,	Ours.
	Objective	Me,	Us.
2nd.	Nom.	Thou,	ye *or* you.
	Poss.	Thine,	yours.
	Obj.	Thee,	you.
3rd.	Nom.	He, she, it,	they.
	Poss.	His, hers, its,	theirs.
	Obj.	Him, her, it,	them.

As pronouns stand for the names of things they have the same properties as nouns.

From these are formed the *possessive pronominal adjectives*, my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their, called adjectives, because they usually are, or can be joined to nouns—"mine, thine," &c., the possessive cases of the personal pronouns, are sometimes called "Possessive pronouns."

Relative pronouns are so called, *because they relate to some word going before and just mentioned, called the antecedent*; they are, "*Who, which, what* and *that*." These should be called *conjunctive* pronouns, because they always couple propositions; other pronouns relate to words going before and may as well be termed *relative.*

"Which," is properly an adjective, and is often joined to a noun, as, "*Which* circumstance," &c. It is then called a relative adjective.

What includes both the pronoun and its antecedent, as, "I told you *what* it was," meaning, "I told you *that which* it was."

Who is applied only to persons; "*which*," to things, and the others to both; "*who*" is declined.

Nom.	who,	In both numbers.
Poss.	whose,	
Obj.	whom,	

The compounds, "whosoever," "whichsoever" and "whatsoever," now written "whoever," &c., are *indefinite relative pronouns.*

3rd. "*Who*" "*which*" and "*what*," when used in questions, are called *interrogative* pronouns as "*Who* is that?"

4th. Indefinite pronouns are *those which are used in the most general sense, where any individual whatever is alluded to;*—they are "*one*," "*none*" and "*others*"; as "no *one* saw him," "*others* do so";—under other circumstances "one" is an adjective. "*Each*," "*all*," "*every*" "*some*," "*either*," "*neither*," "*other*," "*own*" and some similar words, are all adjectives, being joined to nouns expressed or understood. These words are frequently but most incorrectly classed as Indefinite Adjective pronouns. *Another* is sometimes used as an indefinite pronoun, as, "this is not mine, it is another's." "Few," which is sometimes included, is an adjective, as "*few* men are happy"; but it is as often a noun in a different sense, meaning a *small number*, as, "a *few* arrived safe;" here, "few," means a "small number," and is a noun.

5th. The possessive adjectives, *my, thy,* &c., joined to the pronoun, *self*, which is rarely used separately, form what may be called "Reciprocal pronouns," indicating the fact of the same person *doing* and *receiving* the action; as "I struck *myself*." "Self" makes its plural *selves.* These words are also personal; that is, they mark the persons.

The words, "*this*," and "*that*," and their plurals "*these*" and "*those*," commonly called "Demonstrative pronouns" are really *demonstrative adjectives*, being joined to nouns expressed or understood.

It must be carefully borne in mind that all real pronouns are names of things, that is, nouns, and must therefore be treated

as such in all grammatical considerations. When speaking of the pen, I say "*It* is good," "*It*," for the time being, is a name of the pen, and so on of the others. They differ from nouns in the fact that each may be made to stand for a number of different things or classes of things, as, "it" may mean a "pen" or a "book" &c.; whereas, "pen" can not stand for any thing else.

The Verb.

A verb is a word *which makes an assertion or asks a question*: as, "He *writes*;" "He *strikes*." Verbs also imply action. Considered according to the nature of the action, they are divided into Transitive and Intransitive; in the former, the action *passes over to an object*, as, "The man builds the *house*." In Intransitive verbs, *it does not pass over*, as, "He walks slowly."

As regards their form, verbs are divided into Regular, Irregular, and Defective. Regular verbs are *those which form their imperfect or past tense in "ed"* as "I love," "I *loved*"; all others are irregular (see list at end.) Defective verbs are *those which want some of the usual parts*, as, "I *must*," "It *rains*";—the former of these has only one tense, and the latter has only the third person of each tense.

As regards the manner in which the action is applied to the subject, verbs are divided into "Active" and "Passive." "Active" means *doing*, and Passive means, *enduring*. Verbs are said to be Active *when the subject is doing*, as, "I *strike*"; and Passive, *when the subject is enduring*, as, "I *am struck*." These are called the two *voices*. As there is no means of expressing the Passive voice in English by one word, there is properly no passive verb in English; "*am struck*" is two words and should be so treated. (36)

Number and Person.

Every verb must have before it a noun in the nominative case called the subject; as this word is singular or plural, or of the first, second or third person, the verb varies its termination to some extent, and is said to be *in the same number and person as its subject*. The termination, of the persons and numbers are as follow:

Forms of the Persons :—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1st.	The verb itself; as, *love.*	The verb itself, as, *love.*
2nd.	st; as, love*st.*	" " " as, ye *love.*
3rd.	s or th; as love*s.*	" " " as, they *love.*

There is therefore in English a separate form only for the 2nd and 3rd persons singular.

Tense.

Tense is *the distinction of time;* and, as there are three great divisions of time, verbs should have at least three corresponding tenses, namely, the Present, the Past, and the Future. The English verb has but *two* forms for the distinction of time, that is, two tenses, namely, the Present, which is the verb itself, as, "I *love*:" and the Past, which is marked by the termination "*ed*;" (in regular verbs) as "I *loved*." To express the distinctions of time more accurately, and in particular the future time, additional words called "auxilary verbs" are used as in the following table:

Time.	*Tense.*	*Form.*	
Present.	Present.	Verb itself, as,	"I *love*."
Past.	Imperfect,	—"ed"; as,	"I *loved*."
	Perfect,	—"have"; as,	"I *have* loved."
	Pluperfect,	—"had"; as,	"I *had* loved."
Future,	Future,	—"shall" or "will"; as,	"I *shall* love."
	2d Future,	—"shall or will have"; as,	"I *shall have* [loved."

Thus including these compound forms there are *six tenses, one of which refers to the Present time, three to the Past time, and two to the Future time.* These compound forms consist in each instance of at least two words and should always be treated as such (*analysis*, passim); the auxilary "have" is followed by the past *participle* (106); "shall" and "will" by the *Infinitive Mood* of other verbs.

Moods of Verbs.

The Mood *indicates the manner in which the action is performed.* With a slight exception there is properly but *one* form for

mood in English, (43) but admitting the compound forms, there are said to be five moods in English; namely, the Indicative, *which simply declares the action*, as I *love;* the Imperative, *which expresses a command* as *love* thou; the Potential, *which expresses power, possibility, will or obligation*, and is distinguished by the auxiliary verbs, may, can, must, would, or their tenses, as, "I *can love*," &c. These auxiliaries are followed by the Infinitive moods of other verbs;—as "I can go." I may go," "I would go," in each of which, "go" is the Infinitive mood so called. The Subjunctive *which denotes a condition*, as, "he will be in time *if* he *start* early; and the Infinitive so called because it is used in an *unlimited* sense. The Infinitive is merely the *name of the action* and is distinguished by the sign "*to*," as "*to love;*" it does not change its termination to mark the number and person.

This mood is properly a species of noun and should be parsed as a verbal noun, as, "*To study* is wise."

Participles.

A Participle is a word *that partakes of the nature of a verb and adjective*, or *of a verb and noun;* it is therefore always either *a verbal adjective* or a *verbal noun.* Including the compound forms there are three participles. The *present* participle ends in "*ing*," as "*loving:*" the *past* participle ends in "*ed*" (in regular verbs) as "*loved;*" the *future* participle is marked by the sign "*to*," or "*about to*;" it is therefore compound, as "*to love*," or "*about to love.*" A compound form is used also for the past participle, as "*having loved.*"

These words are verbal adjectives where they qualify nouns as the *coming* time," "the time *to come*," and verbal nouns when governed as nouns, as "*seeing* is *believing*," "on *going* home."

The following is an example of a regular verb in all its moods and tenses; 1st person of each tense—active voice.

	Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perfect.*
Indicative Mood	I love.	I loved.	I have loved.
Imperative "	Love thou.	.....	.....
Potential "	I may or can love.	I might or could love.	I may or can have loved.
Subjunctive "	Same as the	Indicative.	
Infinitive "	To love.	.....	To have loved.
Participles,	Loving.	.....	Having loved.

	Pluperfect.	*Future.*	*2nd Future.*
Indicative Mood	I had loved.	I shall or will love.	I shall or will have loved.
Imperative "	.....	.....	.....
Potential "	I might or could have loved.	.....	.....
Subjunctive "	Same as the	Indicative.	.....
Infinitive "	.....	To be about to love.	.....
Participles,	.....	To love or About to love.	.....

Wherever an auxilary verb is used to form a tense, the auxiliary changes its form in going through the persons, as "I have loved," "Thou *hast* loved," &c.

The Subjunctive mood sometimes differs from the Indicative in the form of the 3rd singular, as "If he *start* now, he will be in time;" that is, the 3rd singular of a subjunctive tense is the same as the third plural of an Indicative.

The Potential has no future and consists entirely of compound forms; as "I *may love*."

The Imperative has only one tense and one person—the second. The sign "shall" is said by some grammarians to form an Imperative mood in the 2nd and 3rd persons, as "You *shall go*," "We shall go," &c. Both "shall" and "will" are used as signs of the future with some difference. ("Shall" applied to the *first* person merely implies futurity, as "I *shall* go," "We shall go." "Shall" applied to the *second* and *third* persons implies a *threat* or *command*, as "he shall go." "Will" applied to the *first* person, implies intention and in some degree a threat; it is also usually emphatic, as "I *will* go," (it is my positive intention, &c.) "Will" applied to the *second* and *third* persons, merely implies futurity, as "he *will* go."

The Infinitive has three tenses, marked by "*to*," but the Future is seldom used.

The Participles also have only three tenses, whereof the Perfect and Future, are compound (the simple form of the past participle, "*loved*," is usually a passive word). The *active* past participle is compound, as, "having loved."

To conjugate a verb is to *put it through all its parts*, as above, or to give the three principal parts, namely :—

The Present Tense.	*Past* or *Imperfect Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Love.	Loved.	Loved.
Give.	Gave.	Given.

Voice.

As already stated, there are two voices, the Active and the Passive. This distinction applies only to *transitive* verbs. The only means of expressing the Passive voice in English is by the use of additional words; the form which is usually called Passive *consists of the past passive participle of the verb* in use, and the *corresponding part of the auxilary verb* " to be;" thus "*I love*," is active voice; and "*I am loved*," is passive; this present passive tense consists of the passive participle, "loved," and the *present* tense of, "*to be*;" for the imperfect passive of *love*, use the *imperfect* tense of "*to be*" and passive participle, as "*I was loved*;" and so on of the other parts.

The regular verb "*to love*," through the forms used for the passive voice;—

	Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perfect.*
Indicative Mood	I am loved.	I was loved.	I have been loved.
Imperative "	Be thou loved.	.....	.....
Potential "	I may or can be loved.	I might or could be loved.	I may or can have been loved.
Subjunctive "	If I be loved.	If I were loved.	See Indicative.
Infinitive "	To be loved.	.....	To have been loved.
Participles,	Being loved.	.....	Loved or having been loved.

	Pluperfect.	*Future.*	*Future Perfect.*
Indicative Mood	I had been loved.	I shall or will be loved.	I shall or will have been loved.
Imperative "	.....	.....	.....
Potential "	I might or could have been loved.	.....	.....
Subjunctive "	Same as the	Indicative.	
Infinitive "	.....	To be about to be loved.	.....
Participles,	.....	To be loved or About to be loved.	.....

For the imperfect potential "should," or "would," may be used for "might."

As stated above, each of these forms consists of the corresponding part of the verb "*to be*," and the past passive participle of the verb in use.

Other forms of the tenses are made up of the corresponding parts of "*to be*," and the *present active* participle, ending in "*ing*;" as "I *am loving*," &c., these are called *progressive* forms.

A third form of the different tenses, called the *emphatic* form, is composed of the corresponding parts of the auxiliary "*to do*," and the *infinitive* of the verb in use, as, "*I do love*;" "*I did love*," &c.

All these forms are *compound*, and, though treated by some writers as legitimate forms of the verb, are in reality separate words and should be considered separately.

Auxiliary Verbs.

Auxiliary verbs *are those which are used to form the moods and tenses of other verbs;* they are "to be," "to do," "to have," (which are used in all their parts) "shall," "will," "may," "can," (used only in the present and imperfect tenses) "ought," and "must," which are not used in any other parts.

All these are conjugated as follows:—

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle.*
Am	was	been
Do	did	done
Have	had	had
Shall	should	
Will	would	
May	might	
Can	could	
Ought	ought	
Must	must	

These are all transitive verbs except "to be," and, therefore take an object after them; [35]this is in every instance an Infinitive mood, except after the verb "to have," which takes the past participle as its object [106].

"I do *go*," "I shall *go*," "I might *go*," &c.; in all these cases "*go*" is the infinitive mood. "I have *gone*;" in this instance, "*gone*" is the past participle.

All verbs may be used in the interrogative form, (that is when a question is asked), *by placing the subject after the verb*, as, "Is *he* there?" or *after the sign of the tense*, as, "Has *he* gone?"

When the compound forms are divided into the separate words of which they consist, and when these words are parsed separately, the auxiliary verbs cease to be auxiliary, and become principal verbs, (*analysis and parsing, passim*).

Adverbs.

An Adverb is a word *joined to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, to express some modification* or *degree of quality*; as

"He runs *rapidly*;" "It is *too* large"; "He spoke *exceedingly quickly*."

Most adverbs are formed from adjectives by making the latter end in "*ly*," as, "*happy*," "*happily*." Adverbs can be expressed by adverbial phrases, as, "*in this place*," for "here;" "*in a happy manner*" for "happily," &c. They are named according to the modification they indicate, as, adverbs of *time*," "of *manner*," &c. Adverbs are compared by prefixing "more" and "most;" as, "happily," "*more* happily," "*most* happily."

Prepositions.

A Preposition is a *word placed before a noun to show the relation (or grammatical connection) between it and some other word;* as "He went *to* London," where "*to*" shows the grammatical connection between "went" and "London;" "he sat *on* the table," &c.

The principal prepositions are as follow:—

About	Amongst	Besides	In	Respecting
Above	Around	Between	Into	Through
Across	At	Betwixt	Instead of	Throughout
After	Athwart	Beyond	Notwithstanding	To
Against	Before	By	Of	Towards
Along	Behind	During	On	Under
Amid	Below	Except	Out of	Underneath
Amidst	Beneath	For	Over	Unto
Among	Beside	From	Regarding	Upon
	With	Within	Without.	

"Except," and "save" frequently called Prepositions are really verbs in the Imperative mood, but they are used sometimes with the force of Prepositions. "Regarding," "Respecting," "Concerning," "Excepting," and "Touching," are properly present participles, but occasionally have the force of Prepositions. "According" is properly a present participle, but "according to" is used as a compound Preposition. "Near" and "like" called by some Prepositions, are always Adjectives or Adverbs, having "to" expressed or understood after them.

Conjunctions.

Conjunctions are *words that couple words together, and sentences together:* as "I went *and* returned."

Copulative conjunctions *couple both in sense and in grammar,* as, "and," "both."

Disjunctive conjunctions *couple in grammar but separate in sense,* as "or," "either," "nor," "neither," "but." "William or John is the man;" here, "William" and "John" being coupled by "*or*" are in the same grammatical position, while they are separated in sense, as it means, not that both, but only one of the two, is the man.

Besides these there is a large class of conjunctions *which also indicate some modification of an action,* &c.; as, time, place, condition, &c., and are consequently adverbial as well as conjunctive, they are therefore called "*adverbial conjunctions;*" as, "when," "while," "where," "whence," "whither," "why," "wherever," "whether," "since," "as," "if," "till," "until," "ere," "than," "though," "although," "because," "unless," and some others. All these are conjunctions because they couple propositions; but they are also *adverbial* because they indicate some of the modifications usually expressed by adverbs (93).

Interjections.

Interjections are words *commonly thrown in between words to express any sudden emotion;* as, "oh," "ah," "alas," &c. Any other kind of word used for the same purpose may be considered as an interjection as, "*What!* Is it so?" "*How!* Do you say so?"

Interjections have usually no *grammatical* dependence on the other words of the sentence, but are connected in sense, as in the above example, where "*What*" expresses the astonishment indicated by the following question.

Articles.

The Articles "A" or "An," and "The," need not be treated as a separate part of speech, as they are properly *adjectives,* being always attached to nouns. "A" or "An" has been cal-

led the *Indefinite* article because it does not specify a particular individual of a set. "The" has been called the *Definite* article for the contrary reason.

Parsing.

Parsing is *the art of explaining the grammatical circumstances of the words used in a sentence.* To parse properly each separate word should be considered separately and according to its definition: its relation with other words should be first pointed out. To parse the noun, tell its *relation, kind, case, person, number,* and *government;* an adjective, its *relation, the noun it agrees with;* a verb, its *kind* or *voice, mood, tense, person, number, subject,* and *relation*; a pronoun, *like a noun;* an adverb, its relation and *the word it modifies;* a conjunction, *what it couples;* a preposition, *the words between which it shows the relation.*

Derivation.

Derivation is *the tracing of a word to some simpler form in the same or some other language;* those words which cannot be so traced are called Primitive, as, "man," "good;" others are called Derivative, because they are so derived, as, "contentment" from "content," "goodness" from "good,"—the simple form from which the derivative comes is called the *root,* and the derivative usually consists of a single word from that root, as "*state,*" from "status;" of a compound word from two roots, as "*philosophy,*" from two Greek words; of the root, with a syllable prefixed or added, or both, as "*reduce,*" "*reduction,*" from the Latin "*duco*" and the prefixed and added syllables *re* and *ion:* syllables prefixed are called *prefixes;* those added are called *affixes.* The following is a list of those most commonly used in English; but the subject of derivation will be found more fully treated of in any good work on orthography:—

English Prefixes.

A, *at* or *on,* as *a*board, *a*shore.
En or Em, *into* or *in;* as *en*rol; also "to make," as *en*large.
Fore, be*fore;* as "*fore*knowledge."
In, *to make* as "*im*poverish."

Mis, *negation* or *error*; as "*mis*fortune," "*mis*interpret."
Out, *beyond* or *from*; as "*out*cast."
Over, *beyond* or *above*; as "*over*run."
Up, *upward*; as "*up*turn."
With, *against*; as "*with*stand."

Latin Prefixes.

A, Ab, Abs, *from*; as "*a*vert," "*a*brade,"
Ad, (written also at, ac, an, ap, ag, af, al) *to*; as "*at*tain," "*ap*pertain," "*an*nihilate," &c.—N.B.—The last consonant of the prefix is usually changed so as to assimilate in sound with that of the first consonant of the word.
Ambi, *around*, or *on both sides*, as "*am*bient."
Ante, *before*; as, "*ante*date,"
Bis, *twice* or *two*; as "*bi*ennial."
Circum, *around*; as "*circum*locution."
Con, *together*; as "*con*nect," "*col*lect," (final *l* changed as in *ad*, written also *col*, *cog*, *cor*, *co*, *com*).
Contra, *against*; as "*contra*distinguish."
De, *down*, *from* or *concerning*, as "*de*scend," "*de*part," "*de*scribe."
Dis, *asunder*, as "*dis*sever"—"*di*vert."
E, or En, *out of*; as "*e*lude," "*ex*hale."
Extra, *beyond*; as "*extra*vagance."
In, (with a verb) *into*; as "*in*tend," "*im*pute."—with an adjective, *not*; as "*ir*regular," "*ig*noble,"—(as in *ad* and *con*, "*in*" is written, *il*, *ir*, *ig*, *im*).
Inter, *between*; as "*inter*rupt."
Ob, *in the way of*; as "*ob*noxious" "*oc*cur" (written also *of* or *op*).
Per, *through* or *thoroughly*, as "*per*form," "*per*sist."
Post, *after*, as "*post*pone."
Pro or pre, *before*: as "*pre*pare;" "*pre*scribe."
Pro, *forth*, as "*pro*duce," "*pro*claim."
Preter, *beyond*, as "*preter*mit."
Re, *back*, or *again*; as "*re*store;" "*re*built."
Retro, *backward*; as "*retro*grade."
Se, *apart* or *aside*; as "*se*duce," "*se*cede."

Sub, *under*; as "*sub*terranean;" *sub* becomes, suf, suc, sus, sur, sug, (see *ad*) as *suf*fice, *suc*ceed, *sus*tain, *sur*render, *sug*gest, according to the consonant before which it is placed.

Super, *above*; as "*super*impose," "*super*annuate."

Trans, *beyond* or *across*; as "*trans*port."

Greek Prefixes.

A, *not*; as "*a*narchy" "*a*nonymous."

Ana, *again* or *back*, or *according* to; as "*ana*lyse" *ana*gram."

Anti, *against*; as "*anti*christ," "*anti*dote."

Apo, *from*; as "*apo*state," "*apo*stle."

Auto, *self*; as "*auto*graph."

Cata, *down* or *against*; as "*cate*chism" "*catas*trophe."

Dia, *through*; as "*dia*lect."

Ex or ek, *from*, as "*e*clipse," "*e*clogue."

En, *in*, as "*en*ergy."

Epi, *upon*; as "*epi*logue;" "*epi*stle."

Hyper, *above*; as "*hyper*bolical."

Hypo, *under*; as "*hypo*thesis;" "*hyp*hen."

Meta, *beyond* or *change*; as "*meta*morphose."

Para, *beside*; as "*para*phrase."

Syn, *with*; as "*syn*od," "*syn*tax;" written also *sym*, as *sym*pathize, *syl*, as "*syl*lable."

Affixes forming Nouns.

Acy, *state of*; as "prel*acy*."

Ary, ory (sometimes "ery") *collection of*: as "depositor*y*."

Dom, *possession* or *state*, as, "Christen*dom*."

Er, eer, ster, the *doer*; as "engine*er*," "writ*er*," "spin*ster*."

Ee (opposite of *or*) the *person receiving*, as "patent*ee*," "les*see*."

Hood or Head, *condition*; as child*hood*.

Ism, *species* or *peculiarity*, as "Catholic*ism*" "Irish*ism*."

Kin, ling, cle, lock, a *diminutive*, as "mannik*in*," cod*ling*, artic*le*, hil*lock*.

Ment, *state of having done*, or *thing done*; as "agree*ment*."

Ness, *quality of*; as "happi*ness*."

Ship, *condition* or *office*; as "fellow*ship*."
Tude, ty, y, *state of being*; as "beati*tude*," "reali*ty*."
Ure, *condition of doing*, or *thing done*; as "lec*ture*."

Affixes forming Adjectives.

Able, ible, ble, *able*; as "laugha*ble*."
Aceous, ous, ose, *of such kind*, or *full of*; as "herbace*ous*," "infamo*us*," "joco*se*."
Al, an, ary, ic, ine, *of* or *belonging to*; as "natur*al*," "imagin*ary*," "philosoph*ic*."
En, *made of*; as "golde*n*."
Ful, *full*; as "wonder*ful*."
Ish, *similar*, or *nearly so*; as "boy*ish*."
Ive, *doing*, in opposition to *ed* enduring; as "restrict*ive*," "restricte*d*."
Less, *without*; as "piti*less*."
Some, *some of a quality*; as "cumber*some*."

Affixes forming Verbs.

Ate, en, fy, ize, ise, ish, *to make*; as "allevi*ate*," "enliv*en*," "paci*fy*," "analy*ze*," "poli*sh*."

Affixes forming Adverbs.

Ly, or like, *way* or *manner*; as "happi*ly*."
Ward, *direction*; as "down*ward*."

SYNTAX.

Syntax is that part of grammar *which treats of the proper mode of combining words in propositions and sentences.* (110)

Syntax is divided into Concord and Government. Concord is *the agreement of one word with another in certain grammatical circumstances as indicated by some change of form in the word*; as, *I go*, thou *goest*, he *goes*, where the agreement of the verb with its subject in number and person is indicated by a change in its termination.

Where no change of form is produced by such agreement, as in the case of the adjective and the noun, grammatical concord can scarcely be said to exist; the term *agreement*, however,

continues to be used as a matter of convenience; it is howeve improper.

Government is *the power which one word possesses with regard to another, in causing it to be in some particular state as regards case, gender, number, person, or mood.*

As the English language is but little inflected, it may be said to have but little Syntax, and the relations and connections of words have been sufficiently pointed out in treating of Parsing and Analysis.

Rule I.—*The verb must agree with its subject in number and person*; as I *go*, he *goes*. Here the verb *go*, has the form that marks the first person and singular number, while *goes* has the termination that marks the third person singular; consequently each may be said to agree with its subject in number and person.

Where two or more nouns (whether singular or plural) are the nominatives to the same verb, the verb will be in the plural number, if the nominatives be joined by a copulative conjunction; "John and William *are* there." If they be joined by a disjunctive conjunction the verb will be singular if the nouns are singular, as "John *or* William is there." Nouns *that denote a number of individuals take a verb in either the singular or plural*, accordingly as the *collective* noun is supposed to mean the whole collected in one group, or the individuals taken separately; as, "the public *is* deceived," or, "the public *are* dissatisfied, *they* are deceived."

An Infinitive mood or a proposition, when subject to a verb is considered as a singular noun (usually represented by *it*) and takes a singular verb;—as, "To rise early *is* pleasant." "That they should return immediately *was* the King's order."

When a verb has two or more subjects of different numbers joined by disjunctive conjunctions ("or," "nor," &c.,) it usually agrees in number with the nearest one.

When a verb has two or more subjects of different persons connected by copulative conjunctions, ("and," &c.,) it is plural and agrees in person with the more worthy, that is with the first instead of the second, and the second instead of the third.

Rule II.—*Transitive verbs take an object after them*; and if

this object be a noun or pronoun it is said to be in the objective case, as "John loves *me*."

The object is sometimes an infinitive mood; as, "He loves *to learn*;" "I can *go*;" it is also sometimes a proposition, as, "He required *that they should return*."

Participles, whether verbal nouns or verbal adjectives, take after them the same construction as the verbs from which they are formed; thus, "loving," being from the transitive verb *to love*, takes an object; as, "loving *me*;" "going," being from the verb "*to go*" signifying locomotion, takes after it the prepositions *from* and *to*; as, "going *from* London *to* York."

RULE 3.—*Verbs whose meaning is such, that the noun after them, is another name for the noun before them, usually take the same case after them as before them;* such verbs are the verb *to be*, and many intransitive and passive verbs; as, "He is the *man*;" "He became *king*;" "He was called *John*:" "The master told *John* to be a good *boy*."

RULE 4.—*One verb is said to govern another in the infinitive mood;* the infinitive mood being really a noun and the verb governing it, being transitive, as, "He loves *to learn*." (43) N.B. In the propositions, "He is said *to be* a good man," and, "I was shown a *horse*," the infinitive mood "to be" and the objective case "horse," are found after passive verbs and have no actual government. In the former example the fact "to be a good man" is what is said, and in the latter, "*the horse*" is the thing shown. In such phrases the words used do not, according to the philosophy of grammar, convey the meaning, but are allowed to do so by the power of usage.

The infinitive mood after nouns and adjectives is really a verbal noun governed by the preposition *to*, or by *for* understood, as, "able *to go*," &c. (43.)

The sign *to*, which is not properly part of the infinitive mood is frequently omitted particularly after the auxiliary verbs, as, "can *go*," &c.

RULE 5.—Pronouns *agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number, and person*; as, "I *who am*;" "The man *who is*;" "William, *thou* art wrong;" "Amelia is gone, *she* went home."

"*It*," which is singular and neuter, is often used when speaking of the other persons and the plural number; as, "*It* is *they*;" "Is *it you?*" "*It* is *I*." In such sentences the individuals are spoken of *impersonally*, as things.

N. B.—The case of every pronoun will be decided by its position with regard to other words.

RULE 6.—*Every adjective qualifies some noun expressed or understood;* as, "*all* men are not happy," "*all* are not happy;" "*Every* man sins;" "*Some* are mad," or "*some* men are mad."

Some adjectives as *each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither*, are joined to singular nouns only; and some, as "*few*," and "*many*," are joined almost always to plural nouns.

In such phrases as, "every hundred," "each hundred," "one hundred," "hundred" is a singular noun.

RULE 7.—*When two nouns come together, signifying different things, the former is put in the possessive case;* (marked by *s* with an apostrophe) as "*man's* life."

When the name of the possessor is designated by more words than one, the mark of the possessive case is usually added only to one of them, as, "The *Governor General's* residence.

RULE 8.—*When two nouns come together, signifying the same thing, they are in the same case;* as, "The poet Milton." This is called *apposition*, and takes place, because the nouns (or pronouns) so connected usually fall in the *same* position in the proposition; but the position of a noun in a sentence with regard to the other words is its case; when they fall in *different* positions they are *not* in the same case, as, the *man* killed *himself;* here "man" and "himself" are different names for the same person, but one is nominative and the other is objective.

RULE 9.—The use of adjectives and adverbs should be decided on by their respective definitions (68. 83.) that is, *adjectives should be attached only to nouns, and adverbs to verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs*, but they are sometimes used for each other, by poetic license, as, "*Slow* rolls the Nile," (slow for slowly), "He looks *ill*," "He acts *ill*."

RULE 10.—The conjunctions "and," "both," "or," "but," "either," "neither," "nor," couple like forms of expression, that is, nouns in the same case, the same parts of verbs, and

phrases performing similar duties in a sentence; as "*He* and *I* went;" "learn to *rise* early and *work* hard." "He was standing *near and on my right*."

Adverbial conjunctions are always followed by dependent propositions.

"Either, or;" "neither, nor;" "both, and;" couple the same words, as, "*Both* he *and* I went," where "He" and "I" are coupled by "and," as well as by "both."

The conjunction *than*, is most improperly treated as a preposition and made to govern the objective case when it comes before the relative *who*; as, "Alfred *than whom* a better king never lived." The word after *than* should be whatever case the sense requires. In the above example it should be nominative, "who."

RULE 11.—The Interjection *is sometimes followed by an objective case of the first person*, as "Ah *me*;" but this objective is properly governed by a preposition understood, as, "ah (or alas) *for* me." In other instances the interjection is followed by the nominative of address.

RULE 12.—*Two negatives in the same proposition destroy each other*, that is they are equivalent to an affirmative, as, "*nor* did they *not* see him," "*nor* was he *un*perceived."

RULE 13.—*Prepositions govern a noun or pronoun in the objective case*; sometimes the object of the preposition is a proposition, as, "Before *that he arrived*;" or an infinitive mood, (verbal noun) as "able to *go*." If "to go" be considered one word, "for" is understood; in such phrases "for" was formerly expressed, but this is not permitted by modern style. The preposition is often understood, especially before nouns, indicating the *space*, *time*, or *measurement*, as "ten feet higher," means, "higher *by* ten feet." The preposition has sometime a conjunctive force, as. "Columbus *with* his attendants was present." In such instance the verb must be *singular*.

Many additional rules might be framed under the name of rules of Syntax, but they are in general cumbersome, useless, and unfit for a sketch of this nature, intended chiefly for the use of beginners; in English where so few relations are expressed by

means of inflexions, the safest guide is careful analysis and a thorough understanding of the passage.

Ellipsis.

In many languages it is usual, for the sake of more rapidly communicating our thoughts, to omit many words, which are necessary to the full expression of the sense, but the omission of which will not prevent the passage being understood. This practice is called, Ellipsis, and a word so omitted is said to be "understood." The following are common examples of ellipsis. "He is a great and good man," means, "He is a great *man, and he is* a good man." "I saw him the other day," *on* is understood. "This house is ten feet higher than that;" supplying the omitted words, the sentence is, "This house is higher *by* ten feet than that house *is*." Very few sentences are uttered or written that are not more or less elliptical and in order to parse them properly the words understood must be carefully supplied.

It is obvious that in analyzing a proposition or sentence great care must be taken to supply the ellipses correctly; if this be not attended to the meaning of almost any passage may be materially altered. *All words understood must be supplied from the words expressed in accordance with the obvious sense;* and if the sense be not sufficiently clearly expressed to enable this to be done with certainty, the composition must be faulty. This consideration supplies us with the following important rule: *where propositions are coupled together by "and," "or," or "but," whatever subject or conjunction begins the first, will begin all the others, until a new subject or conjunction shall be expressed,* as, "When he arrived in town and made his way to the right house, and yet, was unsuccessful, he determined to give up." Here the verbs "arrived," "made," and "was," are coupled by "and," consequently the subject "he," and the adverbial conjunction "when," are understood before each of them.

PROSODY.

Prosody *treats of the proper mode of speaking and reading, and of the laws of versification.*

The art of speaking cannot be treated of here; it depends

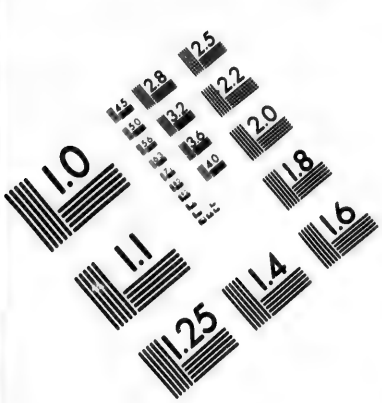
chiefly on correct pronunciation, pauses, accents, emphasis, intonation and some other circumstances, the discussion of which should be treated of under the head of Oratory.

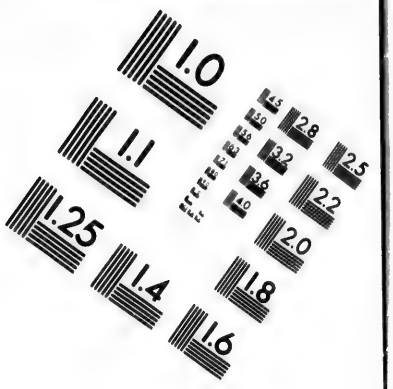
The intention of good reading is to communicate to the hearers the sentiments of the author as clearly and as impressively as possible.

For this purpose the reading must be sufficiently *loud*, the words *slowly and distinctly uttered*, the proper pauses made, and the necessary accents, emphasis and inflections of voice introduced. It must be loud and slow or the words will not be distinctly heard, and for this purpose *the final consonants should be carefully articulated.*

Words that are more important to the sense must be uttered in a corresponding manner, that is, they should receive a heavier or lighter accent. *All contrasted* and *demonstrative* words being peculiarly important to the sense *receive the primary (heavy) accent;* as, "It was *he* not *I*"; "*This* is the person, not *that*." *Restrictive clauses take the secondary (lighter) accent*, as "*all* men are not happy;" "The man who *went* to *America* is dead." The restrictive clauses that may be attached to a noun are, *the adjective* and *adjectival phrase;* to a verb, *the adverb or adverbial phrase* and *the object* (chap. 10;) and to the adjective or adverb, the *adverb* or *adverbial phrase.* (chap. 10.)

Pauses in reading are used *to mark breaks in the sense*, and though every word may be distinctly heard, the sense may not be correctly conveyed, if the pauses be not attended to. The principle is, *all words unconnected in sense must be unconnected in reading, and those connected in sense must be connected in reading.* The principal pauses marked in books, are the Comma, the Semicolon, the Colon, the Period, the note of Exclamation, and the note of Interrogation. The comma is the shortest stop and is used between propositions, items enumerated, complements thrown in between words with which they are unconnected, and generally between principal words and long complements attached to them. The semicolon is a longer pause, and occurs between similar clauses of compound sentences. The colon is still longer, and is used when the clauses are less intimately connected and of different kinds. The period or full





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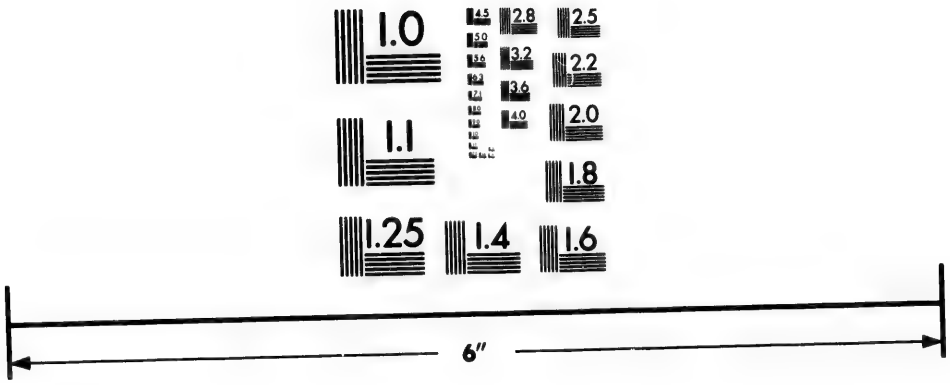

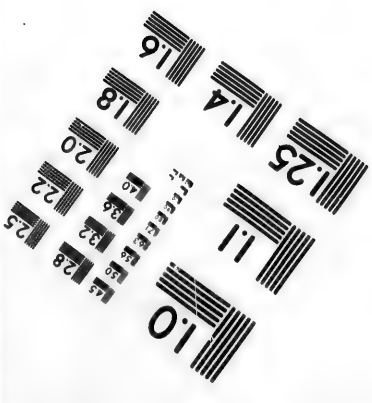

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stop marks the end of the sentence and the complete termination of the sense. The other marks are usually considered as equivalent in length to a period.

Besides the above there are other pauses shorter than the comma necessary in reading, which are *not* marked in the book. The principal of these occurs between the subject and verb, except when the former is a pronoun, (because the pause would make the pronoun emphatic) and between the verb and attribute, except when the latter is a participle (because the participle is usually joined to the verb "*to be*" to express the passive voice.) Pauses still shorter, *momentary cessations of the sound of the voice*, occur between complements.

The particular rules for intonation cannot be given here; the general rules are to pitch the voice in the natural key; to avoid monotony, (a series of tones of the same pitch;) to drop the voice at a full stop, (but a question not commencing with an interrogative word terminates in the *rising* inflexion) and *not* to drop the voice while the grammatical construction goes on.

Verse.

There are two kinds of verse; namely, *rhyme*, where the final syllables of two lines correspond in sound; and *blank verse*, where they do not.

Two lines whose final syllables correspond in sound form a *couplet;* and three lines so corresponding form a *triplet.*

Every line of verse contains a certain number of *feet*, and each *foot*, according to its nature, contains a certain number of short or long syllables, and according to these the measure or metre of the verse is named. The most common feet in English verse, are the *Iambus*, a short and a long syllable (or an unaccented and an accented syllable) as "reduce;" and the Trochee, containing a long and a short syllable, as "happy." The rhythm of lines of verse, (or harmonious flowing,) is dependent in a great measure on the manner in which the words are arranged, so that the accents required by the metre shall correspond with the accents required by the acknowledged pronunciation of the words used.

To aid the skill of the writer in the *art* of making verses cer-

tain *poetic licenses* are allowed, that is, certain deviations from the acknowledged laws of Orthography, Etymology and Syntax. The learner can most readily obtain a knowledge of these by studying the works of the best poets.

FINAL LISTS.

Words having only a plural form.

Alms	Entrails	Orgies
Annals	Goods	Pantaloons
Antipodes	Hysterics	Pincers
Archives	Ides	Riches
Assets	Lees	Scissors
Bellows	Lungs	Shambles
Bitters	Mallows	Shears
Billiards	Manners	Snuffers
Bowels	Matins	Sweepstakes
Breeches	Means	Thanks
Compasses	Measles	Tidings
Clothes	Minutiæ	Tongs
Calends	Morals	Trowsers
Customs	Nippers	Vespers
Drawers	Nones	Victuals
Dregs	Oats	Vitals.
Embers	Odds	

List of Irregular Verbs :—

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle.*
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke	awaked
Bear	bore *or* bare	born (*bring forth*)
Bear	bore *or* bare	borne (*carry*)
Beat	beat	beat *or* beaten
Become	became	become
Begin	began	begun
Behold	beheld	beheld *or* beholden
Bend	bent *or* bended	bent *o* · bended

Bereave	bereft *or* bereaved	bereft *or* bereaved
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bade *or* bid	bid *or* bidden
Bind	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten *or* bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke *or* brake	broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	built *or* builded	built *or* builded
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught *or* catched	caught *or* catched
Chide	chid	chidden *or* chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, *to adhere*	clave *or* cleaved	cleaved
Cleave, *to split*	clove, clave, *or* cleft	cloven *or* cleft
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clothed *or* clad	clothed *or* clad
Come	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Crow	crew *or* crowed	crowed
Creep	crept	crept
Cut	cut	cut
Dare	durst *or* dared	dared
Deal	dealt *or* dealed	dealt *or* dealed
Dig	dug *or* digged	dug *or* digged
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Drink	drank	drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt *or* dwelled	dwelt *or* dwelled
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt

Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore *or* forbare	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten *or* forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got *or* gat	got *or* gotten
Gild	gilt *or* gilded	gilt *or* gilded
Gird	girt *or* girded	girt *or* girded
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven *or* graved
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung *or* hanged	hung *or* hanged
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	heaved *or* hove	heaved *or* hove
Help	helped	helped *or* holpen
Hew	hewed	hewn *or* hewed
Hide	hid	hidden *or* hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held	held *or* holden
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt	knelt
Knit	knit *or* knitted	knit *or* knitted
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, *to lie down.*	lay	lain *or* lien

Lift	lifted	lifted
Light	lighted *or* lit	lighted *or* lit
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown *or* mowed
Pay	paid	paid
Put	put	put
Quit	quit *or* quitted	quit
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	ridden *or* rode
Ring	rang *or* rung	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn *or* sawed
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	seethed	sodden
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape	shaped	shaped *or* shapen
Shave	shaved	shaved *or* shaven
Shear	sheared *or* shore	shorn
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone *or* shined	shone *or* shined
Show	showed	shown
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Shrink	shrank *or* shrunk	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut

Sing	sang *or* sung	sung
Sink	sank *or* sunk	sunk
Sit	sat	sat *or* sitten
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit *or* slitted	slit *or* slitted
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow	sowed	sown *or* sowed
Speak	spoke *or* spake	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spend	spent	spent
Spill	spilt *or* spilled	spilt *or* spilled
Spin	spun *or* span	spun
Spit	spit *or* spat	spit *or* spitten
Split	split *or* splitted	split *or* splitted
Spread	spread	spread
Spring	sprang *or* sprung	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stank *or* stunk	stunk
Stride	strode	stridden
Strike	struck	struck *or* stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strew *or* Strow	strewed *or* strowed	strown *or* strewed *or* strowed
Swear	swore *or* sware	sworn
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swelled *or* swollen
Swim	swam *or* swum	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught

Tear	tore *or* tare	torn
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	throve *or* thriven	thriven
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden
Wax	waxed	waxed *or* waxen
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind	wound *or* winded	wound
Work	wrought *or* worked	wrought *or* worked
Wring	wrung *or* wringed	wrung *or* wringed
Write	wrote *or* writ	written *or* writ
Writhe	writhed	writhen *or* writhed

List of Defective Verbs :—

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle.*
Can	could	
Forego		foregone
May	might	
Must	must	
Ought	ought	
Quoth	quoth	
Shall	should	
Will	would	
Wiss	wist	
Wit *or* wot	wot	

List of words introduced from foreign languages :—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Alumnus	Alumni	Hypothesis	Hypotheses
Addendum	Addenda	Index	Indices, indexes
Amanuensis	Amanuenses	Lamĭna	Laminæ
Analysis	Analyses	Larva	Larvæ
Antithesis	Antitheses	Madame	Mesdames
Appendix	Appendĭces	Magus	Magi
Arcânum	Arcana	Medium	Media
Automaton	Automata	Memorandum	Memoranda
Axis	Axes	Metamorphosis	Metamorphoses
Basis	Bases	Momentum	Momenta
Beau	Beaux	Monsieur	Messieurs
Calcŭlus	Calculi	Oasis	Oases
Cherub	Cherubim	Parenthesis	Parentheses
Criterion	Criteria	Postulatum	Postulata
Crisis	Crises	Phasis	Phases
Datum	Data	Phenoměnon	Phenomena
Desiderâtum	Desiderata	Radius	Radii
Effluvium	Effluvia	Seraph	Seraphim
Ellipsis	Ellipses	Specŭlum	Specula
Emphasis	Emphases	Stamen	Stamina
Errâtum	Errata	Stimŭlus	Stimuli
Focus	Foci	Stratum	Strata
Formŭla	Formulæ	Thesis	Theses
Fungus	Fungi	Vertex	Vertĭces
Genus	Genera	Virtuōso	Virtuosi
Gymnasium	Gymnasia	Vortex	Vortices

List of Nouns forming their feminine by *different terminations*.

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Abbot	Abbess	Duke	Duchess
Actor	Actress	Elector	Electress
Administrator	Administratrix	Emperor	Empress
Adulterer	Adulteress	Executor	Executrix
Ambassador.	Ambassadress	Fornicator	Fornicatrix
Arbiter	Arbitress	Giant	Giantess
Author	Authoress	Governor	Governess
Baron	Baroness	Heir	Heiress

Benefactor	Benefactress	Heritor	Heritrix
Conductor	Conductress	Hero	Heroine
Count	Countess	Host	Hostess
Czar	Czarina	Hunter	Huntress
Dauphin	Dauphiness	Jew	Jewess
Deacon	Deaconess	Lad	Lass
Director	Directress	Landgrave	Landgravine

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Lion	Lioness	Protector	Protectress
Margrave	Margravine	Seamster	Seamstress
Marquis	Marchioness	Shepherd	Shepherdess
Mayor	Mayoress	Songster	Songstress
Patron	Patroness	Sorcerer	Sorceress
Peer	Peeress	Sultan	Sultana
Poet	Poetess	Testator	Testatrix
Priest	Priestess	Tiger	Tigress
Prince	Princess	Traitor	Traitress
Prior	Prioress	Tutor	Tutoress
Prophet	Prophetess	Viscount	Viscountess

2. By a different word :—

Beau	Belle	Horse	Mare
Boar	Sow	Husband	Wife
Boy	Girl	King	Queen
Bridegroom	Bride	Lord	Lady
Brother	Sister	Man	Woman
Buck	Doe	Master	Mistress
Bull	Cow	Monk	Nun
Bullock	Heifer	Milter	Spawner
Cock	Hen	Nephew	Niece
Colt	Filly	Ram	Ewe
Dog	Bitch	Sir	Madam
Drake	Duck	Sloven	Slut *or* slattern
Earl	Countess	Son	Daughter
Father	Mother	Stag	Hind
Gaffer	Gammer	Uncle	Aunt
Gander	Goose	Widower	Widow
Gentleman	Lady	Wizard	Witch
Hart	Roe		

3. By prefixing another word, as :—

Man-servant	Maid-servant
Cock-sparrow	Hen-sparrow
Male-child	Female-child
He-goat	She-goat

VULGAR AND UNGRAMMATICAL PHRASES.

Peculiar modes of expressing the ideas, which eventually lead to the use of vulgar and ungrammatical phrases and the employment of unauthorized words, are common among the great mass of the speakers and writers of any language. This is seemingly unavoidable. Imperfect knowledge of the language, isolation of position, the fact of retaining in the common modes of speech words yet lingering in the language from some former dialect, either in a pure or slightly altered shape, and the prevalence in certain localities of certain mechanical pursuits which render the introduction of unacknowledged words a great convenience, all these circumstances unavoidably lead to a corrupt mode of speech, both as regards pronunciation and syntax. These errors are perpetuated by the necessary result of association, and by the habit of copying the modes of speech in use with those among whom we grow up. Once any peculiar habit of speaking has been acquired in early life, particularly among those who are either imperfectly educated or wholly ignorant, it is rarely altered to any great extent afterwards especially as regards accent, and thus many persons, who eventually attain a satisfactory knowledge of the rules of grammar and even a tolerable acquaintance with acknowledged standard works, still continue to use in speaking and even in writing the corrupt phraseology they had originally acquired. Nothing but extreme care and watchfulness on the part of the individual, with frequent practice in copying from well written works, will correct the errors.

It is unbecoming in any one to permit the acknowledged errors of early habit to mar his speech in after life; but to a person whose pursuits bring him into frequent communication with those capable of detecting his shortcomings, or whose duties require him to express his opinions either orally or in writing before any spe-

cies of popular assembly, above all to the teacher, whose duty it is to instruct others, it is especially disgraceful and should certainly be looked upon as a positive disqualification.

With the view of aiding the teacher in avoiding these solecisms, the following list and explanation of the most common inaccuracies are introduced. The examination of them will not indeed produce elegance of diction—a result which can await superior taste and intelligence only,—but it will help to secure freedom from the grosser errors so generally observable even in those comparatively well educated, and which, by becoming familiarized by use and gradually sanctioned by authority, have so powerful an effect in destroying elegance of composition and purity of style.

"Seen" and "done." The practice of using the past participle for the past tense is a very common one; "seen" and "done" are past participles, but are often used as follows: "I seen it," "I done it;" that is, instead of the past tense; we should say, "I *saw* it," "I *did* it." This error is so very obvious, that it is surprising, that any one who has learned grammar should fall into it, it arises entirely from the force of example; we follow the usage of those around us with whom we have associated in early life. A not uncommon error of a similar character is the use of the imperfect tense for the past participle; as, "I have went," instead of "I have gone"—similar instances are "had became," "had began," &c.—See list of irregular verbs.

"*Will* I go?" instead of "Shall I go?" This is perhaps the most common vulgarism; it is also absurd, as it is, in point of fact, asking another party to explain to you a wish existing in your own mind. If you say, "Will I go?" you are asking another the following question, "Is it my intention to go?" "Will" applied to the first person expresses a *wish* or intention and should never be used as in the above example. It should be "Shall I go?" and so on of all other questions in the first person.

"I don't know *as* I can." The mistake consists in using "as" instead of "that;" it should be, "I don't know that I can." When a proposition is the object of a verb, it commences

almost always with the conjunction "that," never with "as." The mistake is so general as to be sometimes used by well educated persons.

"I don't feel like going out to-day." In such phrases the use of the word "like" is altogether improper. The meaning intended to be conveyed is, "I don't feel *inclined to* go out to day." In idiomatic expressions we commonly use words in a very peculiar meaning, thus we say "how do you do," meaning "in what state is your health." This is sanctioned by acknowledged usage, and these idiomatic phrases are often exceedingly terse and powerful, particularly when used in colloquial language; the words also though peculiarly used are very vigorous and comprehensive in their meaning, but such phrases as, "I don't feel *like* going out," "I don't feel *like* sleeping," &c., have in reality no meaning, and not being recognized should not be used. The word "like" is used equally improperly in such phrases as, "there are none here *like* we have in Toronto;" "as" should be used instead of "like."

'I don't want to," "I don't intend to," &c. The impropriety here consists in omitting the word after "to," as "I don't want to *go*," "I don't intend to *go*," &c. "To go," (and the same form in other verbs) is so invariably looked upon as one word (the infinitive mood) that it seems improper to omit a part of it. This mode of expression is not sanctioned by good authorities.

I ain't." "This expression is given merely as an example of the numerous contractions used in rapid speaking to enable the flow of our words to keep up with the flow of our ideas, by facilitating the utterance of difficult combinations of letters. Thus "ain't" is a contraction of "am not," which is rapidly pronounced "am'nt," and then "ain't." In the same way "cannot" becomes "can't;" "will not" becomes "won't," &c. The use of these contractions has become so general in conversation, that they are in a measure tolerated among the best speakers; in elegant composition however they should be carefully avoided, and the word "ain't" is at all times objectionable. Numerous other contractions might be given of which the same remarks might be made.

The peculiar use of certain words in a sense not tolerated by the standard works in the language, which have only a local currency and value, and which are perpetually introduced almost without any necessity, should be carefully avoided. The most common examples of these are "I guess" and "I calculate." Under this head may be included all *pet words*, (which many persons acquire the habit of introducing perpetually) and *slang* phrases; all are decidedly vulgar, especially the latter.

"It was not me," "It was not her," &c. The impropriety here consists in the use of the objective case after the verb "to be," which should always have the same case after it as before it; thus, "It was not she."

"Who are you talking of." The first word "who" is governed by "of" and should be "whom"; "Of whom are you talking."

"Give me them books." In very many cases this mistake of using the personal *pronoun* "them" for the adjective "those" is made. It needs no explanation.

"Him and me went." Objective cases used for nominatives; not uncommon even among persons acquainted with the rules of grammar and in the habit of explaining them.

"Was you there." The word "you" is the plural form of the second personal pronoun and should always be followed by the plural form of the verb, as "were you" instead of "was you," even where only one person is meant.

The common use of "Here" and "There" for "Hither" and "Thither," as "come here" instead of "come hither" is almost sanctioned by usage, still it is incorrect; "Here" means "*in* this place"; and "There" means "*in* that place"; therefore "come here" means "Come *in* this place," when it should be "Come hither," that is, "Come *to* this place." It is an error akin to this to use "where" "whence" "thence" "there" as nouns; thus "from where," "from whence," &c., are very common expressions, and though "from whence" and "from thence" are used occasionally even by good writers, they should be avoided.

"Only one of them *were* there." This is only one of a vast ariety of examples wherein the complement "of them" (or

some similar one) introducing the idea of plurality leads to the use of a plural verb though the actual nominative case (one) is singular, we should say "Only one of them *was* there." Under this head may also be classed such phrases as, "The general with all his suite *were* present." "Was" instead of "were" should be used, as the preposition "with" governs the objective case. The mistake arises from the obvious meaning that both parties were there.

"I hadn't ought to go." The use of "ought" as a past participle after "had" (or some tense of "have") is not sanctioned by usage. Use some other expression, as "I should not have gone," &c.

Nothing is more common than to use the nominative case of the pronoun instead of the objective after a preposition, when some other word intervenes; as "Leave that to John and I"; very little consideration is required to show that the last words are both governed by "to," and should be "John and me."

One of the most common breaches of the rules of grammar is the use of adjectives for adverbs. One of the most familiar and objectionable instances is the use of the word "some," as in the phrase "I worked *some* during the day," and others similar. Here "some" is used as an adverb modifying "worked"; it should be, "I worked *for a short time*, &c." Even with writers otherwise correct we find "previous" used for "previously"; as, "*Previous* to going out I made all my arrangements."

The common use of the word "transpire" for "occur" is very objectionable. The word "transpire" means "to come to light," and is properly said of a fact which becomes suddenly known after having been previously secret; yet we find it constantly used in the sense of "occur" or "happen"; "a remarkable event *transpired* in London," meaning, "occurred in London."

A very common vulgarism to be found frequently in print and in use even among well educated persons, is the use of the transitive verb "lay" for the intransitive verb "lie"; the mistake probably arises from the fact that the present tense of the transitive verb "I lay" is also the past tense of the intransitive verb "I lie." Thus we talk of the ships "*laying* in the har-

bour, instead of *lying*; we perpetually read such phrases as "I *laid* down on the sofa" instead of "I lay, &c." The expression has become so universal as applied to ships, as to be almost sanctioned by authority; but certainly in other cases it is inexcusable.

"Different to" instead of "different from" is constantly used but is undoubtedly incorrect. The verb "differ" takes "from" and not "to" after it, a thing differs *from* another, not *to* another.

Very many other instances might be adduced, but they would occupy more space than can be afforded in a work of this nature.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING OF PECULIAR EXPRESSIONS.

"I started early inasmuch as I wished to arrive in time." "Inasmuch" is always written as one word and is an adverb modifying "started"; but it is really three words, namely, "in as much," where "as" is used for "so" and modifies "much," and the second proposition "as I wished to arrive in time" completes "as" (so).

"I lived so as to save money." Here are two propositions, the first ends at "so"; the second "as to save money" evidently explains "so," and with the omitted words supplied is, "as I should live to save money," where "save" governed by "to" is a verbal noun telling the purpose of "should live."

"It is worth a shilling." Some consider "worth" to be an adjective (worthy) qualifying "it," and "shilling" governed by "of" understood. Properly, "worth" is a noun meaning "value" (a very common meaning) and "shilling" is governed by "for" understood, the whole sentence being "It is value for a shilling."

"They are more numerous than he wished for." Here the word "more" obviously indicates that the speaker is making a comparison as to number, between "they" and some other things for which he wished; hence the whole sentence evidently is "They are more numerous than those things are for which he wished." The parsing is easy.

"This house is twice as high." "Twice" is evidently an

adverb modifying "as" used here, as frequently elsewhere, for "so."

"Twice ten are twenty." "Twice" is properly an adverb formed from "two," and it might be parsed "ten *taken* twice are twenty." It is however better to consider it as used as a noun meaning "two times," and the sentence would be "Two times of ten are twenty," making "ten" the name of a number as "hundred," "thousand," &c. "Four times ten are forty," &c., may be parsed in the same way.

"The crime of being a young man." Here the case of man is the difficulty. The speaker must mean "The crime of *some one* being a young man," and if some such word be supplied, it will be the objective governed by "of," and consequently "man" will also be the objective after "being" because there is an objective before it.

In the common phrase "I was made a present of a book by them;" the word "present," has, properly speaking, no government. The active sentence is "They made me a present of a book." Here "made" has *apparently* two objects, and the real object (book) should be taken as the subject of the passive proposition, thus, "a present of a book was made to me." Usage however has sanctioned the other and incorrect mode of making the proposition passive, that is by assuming the *apparent* object of the active as subject of the passive, thus leaving the real object without any government.

Numerous other similarly constructed phrases are in common use; the following is a familiar example of a large class of them; "He was thought by his friends to be an honest man," as in the former example "to be," like "present," has no government. The active proposition is "his friends thought him to be an honest man." The precise object here is not "him," (his friends could not think him), but *the fact of the being*, and this latter should be assumed as the subject of the passive, when the sentence would run thus, "that he was an honest man was thought by his friends."

"It is past six o'clock." "Past is used as a proposition (beyond) governing six in the objective case; and six is here a noun, the name of a particular number, just as "1861" (taken

as one word) is a proper noun being the name of a particular year, "o'clock" is to be parsed "of the clock."

"I'd rather do it" is often written in full "I had rather do it." This is a mistake arising from the fact that "I'd" is used as a contraction either for "I had" or "I would." The above sentence in full is, "I would rather do it," which is easily parsed.

"I will go provided I have time." Many persons call "provided" in such phrases a conjunction; this is wrong; the conjunction "that" is understood. "Provided" is a past passive participle (verbal adjective) qualifying "it" understood; and the words "it being provided" constitute an absolute phrase, "it" standing for the following proposition.

"The more I tried, the less I succeeded." The principal proposition is, "I succeeded the less," the other one telling the degree in which "I succeeded the less;" and there is evidently an ellipsis, the full sentence being, "I succeeded the less *in proportion as* I tried the more." "The less" means "*in* the less *degree;* and "the more" similarly means "in the more (greater) degree." The parsing of them is simple.

"Owing to this circumstance I was unable to start." In such phrases "owing to" is commonly called a compound preposition; it is in reality a present participle, and the full sentence is, "*it was* owing to this circumstance *that* I was unable to start;" "owing" is a present participle or verbal adjective referring to "it" which stands for the proposition "that I was unable to start."

"Generally speaking, the weather is very variable." When the word "speaking" is used, it *must* refer to some pronoun or the name of some person understood, and in the above example the full sentence is, "*I* generally speaking *assert*, &c.," where "speaking" qualifies "I."

"It is somewhat more than ten times heavier than water." This arranged more in the order of the sense, and with the ellipsis supplied is, "it is heavier than water is, by somewhat more than ten times are." The first proposition is, "It is heavier by somewhat more;" second, "than water is;" third, "than ten times are." "Somewhat" is an adjective qualifying "more" used as a noun. "Times" is subject to "are" understood.

"Methinks." This colloquial phrase is altogether anomalous

and has been sanctioned by usage from "me thinks," a barbarism of some olden time when ignorance or vulgarity led to its use. If parsed at all it must be taken as "I think."

"You had better go home." All sorts of difficulties have been made about this and similar phrases; very unnecessarily, as the parsing is obvious; "had" is not an auxiliary, but a principal verb imperfect, indicative, &c. "Go" is the infinitive mood, its object.

"He died sixty years since." "Since" here by the arbitrary power of usage or fashion is made to stand for "formerly" or "ago," an adverb modifying "died," and "sixty years" is the measure of time governed by "by" understood.

"This fact was lost sight of by them." "Sight" and "of" cannot be parsed separately. To explain the parsing change the construction to the active voice, and it will be "they lost sight of this fact." Here the word "fact" is evidently object of the preposition "of," and in making the proposition passive it is assumed as the subject; in other words, "lost sight of" is taken as one word and treated as a transitive verb expressing the action alluded to in the assertion and having the word "fact" as its object in the active sentence; taking it so, "fact" becomes the legitimate subject of the passive proposition. In the same way the proposition "they got rid of him" expressed in the passive becomes "he was *got rid of*," where "got rid of" is obviously considered as one word indicating the action alluded to in the passage, and consequently requiring to be treated and parsed as one word. There are numerous instances in English where a particular relation or idea has no corresponding word or sign in the language, and has to be expressed by two or more words, which are then doing the duty of one word and may be parsed together if circumstances render it necessary; this is evident in some of the compound prepositions. (181)

"This is my business as a philosopher." To parse the last word, the ellipsis must be supplied. "As" is an adverbial conjunction beginning a new proposition and the whole sentence is "this is my business as it is the business of a philosopher." The parsing is easy (170.) The ellipsis may also be supplied as

follows, "this is my business as the business of a philosopher is mine."

"You are not sure of its being John." The difficulty here is to account for the case of "John." Usage has sanctioned "its" in such sentences whereas it should be "it;" there "John" will be the objective case after "being" because there is an objective before it. If "its" be retained we must call it a possessive pronoun in the objective case governed by "of," and John will then be the objective still.

"What with the wet weather and the bad roads, I caught a severe cold." Resolve "what" as usual into "that which," and supply the ellipsis, and the whole sentence will run somewhat thus; "In consequence of *that which* took place with, &c;" the parsing of this is easy.

"A few men returned home." The parsing of the words "a few" constitutes the difficulty; "a" appears here to be placed before a plural noun, and some writers frame a rule to meet the difficulty, stating that the indefinite article is sometimes placed before a plural noun. This of course is no explanation and violates the meaning of the article. Properly "few" is used as a noun and means "small number," and "a few men" means "a small number of men." This is sufficiently evident in such phrases as "a few of them returned;" where "few" is evidently used as a noun.

"How much soever it was their interest to return soon they nevertheless made a long delay." In this sentence there are two propositions; namely, "they nevertheless made a long delay" principal one; "how much soever it was their interest to return soon" is dependent completing "made," as these propositions are coupled in sense, they must be coupled in words; the coupling words is "how" or more properly, "howsoever" which is one word, an adverbial conjunction coupling the two propositions; "much" is an adverb modifying "was."

"I am much wearied, *not to say* totally exhausted." What is the dependence or government of "not to say?" The whole sentence is? "I am much exhausted, and I express myself thus in order not to say, that I am totally exhausted," and the phrase "not to say" completes "order," say being the verbal noun

governed by "to," and "to" shows the relation between "order" and "say." This idiom is frequently used.

"The year 1861 (eighteen hundred and sixty-one)," the numeral is the name of that particular year, and is therefore a proper noun; if written in words, as above, these words must be taken as one and parsed accordingly. The words, "hundred," "thousand," "million," &c., are nouns; "one hundred men were slain;" here "one" is an adjective qualifying "hundred" and "men" is governed by "of" understood. Thus we say, "thousands of men were slain," "millions lost their lives," &c. "Ten" which is commonly an adjective is frequently a noun; as "tens of thousands," &c.

THE END.

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